



**UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM**

**FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN HOTELS IN THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA AND
THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES: BARRIERS, ENABLERS AND EXPERIENCES
OF WORK**

by

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore barriers to work, enablers for work and work experiences of women employed in the hotel sector in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The research contrasts experiences between participants, to explore the similarities and differences between them. A particular aim of the study was an investigation of the issues for women, particularly those with caring responsibilities, in finding and maintaining employment, and any policies/practices that support them.

The study collected primary data through a survey, and in-depth interviews that were conducted during fieldwork in KSA and UAE. The study sampled 385 female employees working in various roles in hotels, and 45 subsequently participated in one-to-one, and small group interviews. The sample group included citizens of each country, Arab and non-Arab expatriates, with and without caring responsibilities for children or adults. The analysis of the survey and interviews found that women with caring responsibilities were more likely than women without those responsibilities to report conflicts between professional and personal responsibilities. A further finding was that women, and KSA participants in particular, were positive about flexible employment practices, perceiving them as a way to ease employment constraints. Regardless of country or nationality, women with children were found to suffer an earnings penalty. An additional insight was that KSA citizens claimed to have better prospects for career progression than expatriates although the former were less satisfied in their work. A number of barriers to employment and causes of job (dis)satisfaction were identified and these were found to vary, dependent on the country. There were also differences between the working experiences of national and expatriate women.

Keywords: Women's employment, HR, Hospitality, KSA, UAE, Arab, International

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my amazing mother Fatima Alismail, I hope this achievement will make your dream true, the dream that you had waited for, for a long time.

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Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	2
1.0 Background to the Research	2
1.1 Problem Statement	5
1.2 Objectives of this Research	10
1.3 The Significance of the Study	10
1.4 Originality of the Study	11
1.5 Research Questions.....	11
1.6 Thesis Structure	13
1.7 Framework for the Research.....	19
Chapter 2: Female Employment in KSA & UAE.....	22
2.0 Introduction	22
2.1 The Characteristics of the Arab cluster	22
2.2 Arab Culture and Context	26
2.2.1 Overview of Arab Culture	26
2.2.2 Female Employment in Arab Societies	27
2.2.3 Attitudes towards Working Women.....	29
2.3 Role of the Saudi Government in Female Employment.....	32
2.4 Role of the UAE Government in Female Employment.....	41
2.5 Female Employment and the Position of Women in other Arab Countries.....	44
2.6 Expatriate Female Employment in Arab Countries	48
2.6.1 Expatriate Workers in the UAE	51
2.6.2 Expatriate Workers in KSA	54
2.7 Summary.....	54
Chapter 3: Structure of Tourism in KSA and UAE	57
3.0 Introduction	57
3.1 Tourism in KSA	57
3.1.1 The Saudi Arabian Hotel Industry	60
3.2 Tourism in the United Arab Emirates	62
3.2.1 The Emirates Hotel Industry	63

3.3 The Gulf States and Middle East Tourism	64
3.4 Summary	64
Chapter 4: Theory and Evidence of Female Disadvantage in Employment.....	67
4.0 Introduction	67
4.1 Discrimination Theories.....	67
4.1.1 Employment Discrimination	69
4.1.2 Occupational Segregation as Discrimination	70
4.2 Tourism and Gender Discrimination.....	71
4.3 Explanations for Gender Inequality in the Tourism Industry	72
4.4 Gender Discrimination in Employment in Arab Countries	73
4.5 Gender Roles in Arab Countries	74
4.7 Flexible Working.....	81
4.8 Summary	83
Chapter 5: Research Design, Methodology and Field Work	86
5.0 Introduction	86
5.1 A Reflective Account of the Research Process.....	86
5.2 Research Approach	89
5.3 Research Design.....	90
5.3.1 Case Study Research	91
5.3.2 Cross-sectional Research	93
5.4 Research Methods	94
5.5 Sampling Strategy	95
5.5.1 Generalisation and Triangulation	96
5.6 Pilot Study	98
5.7 Research Questionnaire and Interview Questions	99
5.8 Conducting the Field Work.....	102
5.8.1 Challenges and Limitations	103
5.9 Data Analysis	105
5.10 Ethical Considerations	105
5.11 Summary	106
Chapter 6: Sample Characteristics: Descriptive Analysis	109

6.0 Introduction	109
6.1 The Sample: Demographic Characteristics.....	110
6.2 Children and Caring Responsibilities	114
6.3 Job Characteristics of the Sample	115
6.4 Motivation for Work	120
6.5 Barriers to Work	123
6.6 Issues and Problems Related to Work-life Balance	128
6.7 The Overall Experience of Work: Satisfaction with Work.....	131
6.8 Policy Implications: Perspectives on Flexible Working	132
6.9 Summary.....	132
Chapter 7: Enablers, Barriers and the Experience of Employment: Analysis of the Survey Responses of 385 Women Working in KSA and UAE Hotels.....	135
7.0 Introduction	135
7.1 Sample Characteristics and Overlapping Sub-samples.....	137
7.2 Comparative Analysis of Barriers to Work and Difficulties Caused by Work	142
7.2.1 Barriers to Finding and Staying in Work	142
7.2.2 Work-life Balance, Flexible Working and Job Changes	144
7.3 Motivation for Work and Satisfaction with the Working Experience	146
7.4 Multivariate Analysis of Satisfaction with the Experience of Work.....	151
7.5 Summary.....	163
Chapter 8: Enablers, Barriers and the Experience of Work: Analysis based on Interviews with 45 Women Working in KSA and UAE Hotels	167
8.0 Introduction	167
8.1 The Participants	168
8.2 Barriers to Work	176
8.3 Enablers of Employment.....	179
8.3.1 Previous Experience	179

8.3.2 Job Availability, Skills and Contacts.....	180
8.4 Motivation to Work	181
8.5 The Experience of Work.....	183
8.5.1 Long Working Hours	183
8.5.2 Cultural Constraints and Differences	186
8.5.3 Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with the Working Experience	188
8.6 Work and Caring Responsibilities	190
8.6.1 Expatriate Women with Caring Responsibilities in their Home Countries.....	190
8.6.2 Women with Caring Responsibilities in KSA/UAE	190
8.7 Views on Flexible Working Practices	192
8.7.1 Advantages of Flexible Working	192
8.7.2 Disadvantages of Flexible Working.....	194
8.7.3 Negative Perspectives of Working from Home	196
8.8 Comparative Analysis	197
8.8.1 Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in KSA 197	
8.8.2 Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in the UAE 202	
8.9 Overall Country Comparison	205
8.10 Summary and Conclusions	206
Chapter 9: Findings, Discussion and Conclusion.....	212
9.0 Introduction	212
9.1 Female Employment in KSA and UAE Hotel Sector	214
9.2 Barriers to Female Employment in the Hotel Industry.....	218
9.2.1 Culture	220
9.2.2 Discrimination	221
9.2.3 Working for Longer Hours.....	222
9.2.4 Family Care Responsibilities.....	223
9.3 Enablers	225
9.3.1 Flexible Employment Practices.....	227

9.4 Limitations of the research	229
9.5 Summary of Contributions and Implications for Future Work.....	230
9.6 Recommendation and Implications	237
9.7 Summary	238
Appendices	239
References	283

LIST OF CONFERENCES AT WHICH RESEARCH FROM THIS THESIS HAS BEEN PRESENTED

PROFESSIONAL CONFERENCES

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

- **Saham Alismail** (2016) Female Employment in Hotels in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates: Barriers, Enablers and Real-Life Experiences of Work. *EABTH European Sustainable Development on Business Research*. London, U.K.
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- **Saham Alismail** (2014) Female Employment in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States with Consideration of Work Practices and their Implications for Child and Informal Carers in the Tourism/Hotel Sector. *The Midlands Regional Colloquium* (Aston,

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Customer Services and Flexible Working in the Hotel Sector: A Two Case Study
Based Analysis. *The 6th Saudi Scientific International Conference*. Brunel, U.K.
Hosted by Brunel University, London

List of Abbreviations

(ADR)	Average Daily Rate
(ALJ)	Adbul Latif Jameel Community
(CCT)	Cross-Cultural Training
(CEDAW)	The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
(CRM)	Customer Relations Management
(ECSA)	Empowering Capabilities, Skills and Aptitude
(GCC)	Gulf Cooperation Council
(GDP)	Gross Domestic Product
(FNC)	Federal National Council
(HADAF)	Human Resource Development Fund
(HDI)	Human Development Index
(HRD)	Human Resource Development
(IHG)	InterContinental Hotels Group
(ILO)	The International Labour Office
(KSA)	The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
(MMC)	Majority Muslims Countries
(MDGs)	Millennium Development Goals
(NGOs)	Non-Governmental Organisations
(PBUH)	The Birthplace of the Prophet Mohammad
(RevPAR)	Revenue Per Available Room
(RQs)	Research Questions
(UAE)	The United Arab Emirates
(UNWTO)	United Nations World Tourism Organization
(WEF)	World Economic Forum
(WTO)	The World Tourism Organization

List of Tables

Table 1.1: Perspectives, underlying assumptions and research questions	12-13
Table 2.1: Cultural Dimension and Ratings of Arabic Cluster	23
Table 2.2: Female Employment Rates by Country	33
Table 2.3: Unemployment Rates of Rural Areas in KSA	35
Table 2.4: Percentage of Women Employed in the Public Sector in Managerial Positions	46
Table 2.5: The Percentage of Males as Compared to Females Employed in UAE and KSA from 2005 to 2013	47-48
Table 2.6: The Percentage of Nationals and Population by Country from 2009 to 2015	51-53
Table 2.7: The Population in KSA by Country-2006	54
Table 3.1: Saudi Arabian Travel and Tourism Industry	59
Table 4.1: Women in Hotels and Restaurants by Occupational Status and Region (2010)	73
Table 5.1: Sources for the Job Satisfaction Scales in the Questionnaire	102
Table 7.1: Sample Characteristics (n= 385)	138
Table 7.2: Sample Characteristics by Country and Home/Expatriate Nationality	139
Table 7.3: Job Characteristics of the Sample	140
Table 7.4: Job Characteristics by Country, Arab/non-Arab & Home/Expatriate Identity	141
Table 7.5: Job Characteristics by Age Group, Presence of Children & Caring Responsibilities	142
Table 7.6: Barriers to Work	144
Table 7.7: Problems Caused by Working	145
Table 7.8: Reasons for Working	147
Table 7.9: Satisfaction with Work Measures	147

Table 7.10: Strength of Agreement with General Statements about Work	159
Table 7.11: Strength of Agreement with Statements about Work and the Working Environment by Country and Nationality	150
Table 7.12: Factor Loadings for Work Satisfaction Statements	152-153
Table 7.13: Mean Values of Composite Indices of Satisfaction with Work	154
Table 7.14: OLS Regression Results of Satisfaction with Work	156-157
Table 7.15: OLS Regression Results Including Impact of Work on Home Life	158-159
Table 7.16: Monthly Salaries	160
Table 7.17: Ordered Logit Earnings Estimations	161-162
Table 8.1: Participant Data	169-173
Table 8.2: Comparison of Arab and Expatriates Female Employees in KSA: illustrative responses and perspectives	198-200
Table 8.3: Comparison of Arab and Expatriates Female Employees in the UAE: illustrative responses and perspectives	202-203
Table 9.1: Female Employment in KSA and UAE Hotels: Summary of Findings	214
Table 9.2: Barriers in Employment: Summary of Findings	218-219
Table 9.3: Enablers for Work: Summary of Findings	226
Table 9.4: Summary of Contributions	230-231
Table 9.5: Framework of Findings	236

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Research Perspectives and Research Questions	12
Figure 1.2: Thesis Layout	14
Figure 1.3: Thesis Journey (The research process)	18
Figure 1.4: The Conceptual Framework	20
Figure 3.1: Map of KSA	61
Figure 6.1: Country of Residence	110
Figure 6.2: Nationality	111
Figure 6.3: Age Group	112
Figure 6.4: Marital Status	113
Figure 6.5: Caring Responsibilities for Children under 15 Years Old	114
Figure 6.6: Number of Years in Employment at the Hotel	115
Figure 6.7: Nature of Employment	116
Figure 6.8: Department of Employment	117
Figure 6.9: Salary	118
Figure 6.10: Reasons for Working – UAE	120
Figure 6.11: Reasons for Working – KSA	121
Figure 6.12: Reasons for Working – UAE and KSA	122
Figure 6.13: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – UAE	123
Figure 6.14: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – KSA	124
Figure 6.15: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – UAE and KSA	125
Figure 6.16: Difficulties while Looking for Employment	126
Figure 6.17: People who Made it Difficult to Find Employment	127
Figure 6.18: Problems in Life due to Employment – UAE	128
Figure 6.19: Problems in Life due to Employment – KSA	129
Figure 6.20: Problems in Life due to Employment – UAE and KSA	130
Figure 6.21: Level of Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with Decision to Find Employment	131
Figure 6.22: Work Flexibly to Help Manage Caring Responsibilities	132
Figure 7.1: Overlapping Sub-samples	140
Figure 9.1 Developed Conceptual Framework	213

List of Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaires	239
Appendix 2: Interview Questions	265
Appendix 3: Interview Script Samples	271
Appendix 4: Consent Forms	278
Appendix 5: Certificates	280

Quran Al-Tawba Verse No: 105

And say (O Muhammad SAW) “Do deeds! Allah will see your deeds, and (so will) His Messenger and the believers”

Chapter 1

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Background to the Research

The Islamic religion or faith approves fairness between genders in outlining the rights and duties of each. One of the *hadith*¹ of Prophet Mohammed (Peace Be Upon Him [PBUH]²) is “Every work is worship”, this indicated that every female or male Muslim person (i.e. people who follow the religion of Islam) has to seek education and work to fulfil her or his duty in worshipping Allah³. As an example, Khadija bint Khowaild (The first wife of Prophet Mohammed (PBUH)) was an Arab woman who had her own successful work in Makkah, and she met Mohammed (PBUH) through that work (Voorhoeve, 2012).

However, in spite of a growing number of employed women in KSA and UAE, they continue to face limitations and restrictions in their employment. Social, educational, political and economic reasons, and particularly the Islamic faith, are cited to justify this situation (Khayat, 2006). For example, much effort is made to keep Saudi women and men completely separate. However, while Islam commends women to be good wives and mothers, the religion also emphasises the importance of female participation in all social, political or economic aspects of life (Khayat, 2006).

Women internationally face challenges that can all be interpreted as forms of gender discrimination (Stichter and Parpart, 1990). This gender discrimination can be particularly noted in the Arab world as the geographical context for this study. Females are responsible for the home right from their childhood, and may not have the permission to go outside their home alone to fulfil basic needs (Stichter and Parpart, 1990). Those restrictions on going outside the home without a male chaperon continue and intensify as a female grows up. Hence, women refrain, and are prevented from engaging in employment due to cultural and religious beliefs that view women as the home-maker, and consider it inappropriate for women to have dealings with men

¹ According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary: “a narrative record of the sayings or customs of Muhammad and his companions”.

² Islamic teachings indicate that any person mentioning The Prophet Mohammad’s name is to insert the phrase ‘Peace Be Upon Him’ after mentioning the name as a form of expressing respect.

³ Islam 101, http://www.islam101.com/dawah/05_concept_worship.html

outside the family. Males effectively control the financial resources for female family members (Stichter and Parpart, 1990).

Although men and women are equal according to Islamic jurisprudence, several Islamic societies maintain differentiation between men and women through rules and regulations that govern family relations, rights and property. Some Islamic societies, such as those in Morocco, Iran, and Turkey, have been more successful in minimising these differences. However, in some Islamic societies, religious practices have led to more discrimination against women. There are several national councils, ministries, and organisations that have been established to deliver social change for women. However, despite all these organisations, efforts, investments, and feminist activism, women lack empowerment in most Arab countries. The various plans, projects, and programmes that have been implemented specifically to empower women have not had a transformative influence on women's lives. Women's empowerment is often linked with other development goals and projects, such as poverty alleviation, good governance or economic development. There is therefore a failure to recognise the importance of women's empowerment as the primary focus, which would support other goals, such as poverty alleviation. However, the recent conflicts in Arab countries and the invasion of Iraq have resulted in an antagonism against concepts of justice inspired by the Western countries. Possibly, there is an unwarranted link between female empowerment and the West, which hinders women's empowerment in the Arab countries up to an extent (Sholkamy, 2010).

There is a strong differentiation between Arab women in different socio-economic groups. Arab women in higher socio-economic groups, the upper and middle classes, have experienced improvement in terms of their empowerment, while poorer women have realised fewer benefits (Sholkamy, 2010). This and several other societal issues continue to present challenges for achieving gender equality and female empowerment in Arab countries. It is therefore important to address societal perceptions and norms, instead of simply implementing projects and plans that aim to improve women's financial situation temporarily. The latter do less to embed a sense of women's empowerment within society or change the gender inequality found in daily societal interactions and activities (Sholkamy, 2010).

However, Islam does not restrict females to the home, and provides women the right to engage in employment and earn their livelihood while respecting certain boundaries, which aim to protect the females themselves (Voorhoeve, 2012). An example is the restriction to limited interaction with males outside their family, which protects females from receiving undue advances from males (Voorhoeve, 2012). Therefore, one of the main challenges for Arab Saudi society is to encourage women to engage in employment, without compromising their cultural and religious values and beliefs. Another challenge for women's economic participation is for them to maintain a balance between their home and work lives because they hold complete responsibility for maintaining the household and caring for family members.

In particular, in the context of the KSA, the Saudi government aims to create a more balanced economy by reducing its dependence on the oil industry, and promoting other industries. To fulfil that aim, the country requires female workers because of the labour requirements of the economy, and because of the rights granted within Islam. According to a latest World Bank population measurement in 2014, the female share of the KSA population is increasing (43.4%) (The World Bank, 2015). It is important for the majority of the population to participate in the economy in order for it to grow. If 43.4% of the population remains at home and does not contribute to the economy, this may result in a decline in economic growth, and, at the very least, the economy would operate inefficiently below its potential. Therefore, it is crucial for Saudi women to engage in employment in all sectors of the country. This will assist in boosting the economy, and also benefit the women themselves (Al-Kibsi, 2015; Correia, 2015).

For practical reasons the focus of this thesis is restricted to one specific industry and sector. This focus is on the employment of women within the tourism and hospitality industry, with specific emphasis on the hotel sector. As discussed in detail in Chapter 3 the tourism industry is growing in importance in many Arab countries. It is also a sector that worldwide has high female employment. However, several Arab Gulf and Emirate states such as KSA are experiencing challenges in tourism development while the Emirate state of Dubai has been able to overcome many of these challenges and has established itself as a popular tourist destination. A comparison of the experiences of women working in hotels in Arab Gulf and Emirate states is therefore of interest.

1.1 Problem Statement

The main aim of the present research study is to explore the working conditions for women in KSA and UAE. The problem is how societal and cultural attitudes to family responsibilities, and existing work conditions play a role in enabling or disabling females from earning an independent livelihood. The justification for the selection of this research topic is that there is evidence for, and a perception, that women in Arab countries experience challenges in employment due to culturally constructed gender discrimination (Kemp et al., 2015). This research explores the reality of this perception, and investigates evidence. The study highlights the positive and negative aspects of Arab societies as they impact on female employment. It embodies an analysis of female employment in Arab societies, and in so doing contributes to an understanding of the realities of the working situation for women. The research also seeks to inform Arab women of their rights to employment and enablers for employment. As such, the study particularly provides a voice for women employed in KSA and UAE in the hospitality industry.

In Arab countries, society has a generally negative perception of women working in hotels because the employment of females within the hotel industry is considered unsuitable by the Arabian culture. One reason is due to a lack of understanding of the work involved within a hotel business. Interaction with men is the main issue, but there are several areas of work within hotels that do not require interaction between females and males. As well, some Arab women believe it is acceptable to have a certain level of interaction with men, provided it is maintained within professional boundaries. Nevertheless, Arab women have to convince their families to allow them to work, as this is considered inappropriate in the culture (Syed and Zafar, 2014; Gov.uk, 2007).

Expatriate women, who come from more 'liberal' cultures, and yet work in Arab countries, may also find it difficult to adjust to a culture that they consider to be 'narrow-minded' in these attitudes. For these women it may be difficult to adjust to the different lifestyle in Arab countries, not only because of cultural differences, but also because of differences in management styles and work responsibilities (Expat Woman, 2014).

Barriers and challenges to hotel employment, faced personally by women in Arab

countries, are likely to include the expenditure of seeking employment and lack of relevant experience. There is also the issue of long and late working hours, in the hotel trade, that preclude women with caring responsibilities from such employment. As well, overtime hours worked in the UAE and KSA are usually not paid, which may not be acceptable for many women. This is particularly an issue for other foreign women workers, from less-developed countries, who leave children in their home countries, with relatives, in order to undertake higher paid employment outside their home country (Lawrence and Krudewagen, 2014; Expat Woman, 2014).

Although KSA and UAE are both Majority Muslim Countries (MMC) (Nosharia WordPress, 2012), there are several differences regarding employment between and within the two countries that make a comparison interesting. KSA is more conservative, in comparison to UAE with Al-Khobar being the most liberal town in KSA and Dubai is the most liberal city (Emirate) in UAE. Riyadh is the most conservative city in KSA, and Abu-Dhabi (UAE emirate) is not nearly so liberal as Dubai, and in both cases these are the capital cities. The Emirate of Sharjah is geographically close to Dubai, but is also very conservative in comparison. I make these points to show the in-country differences for conservative/liberal attitudes to female employment.

Women in KSA are required to wear an *Abaya* (the long traditional dress) to cover up while outside the home (Buchele, 2008). The situation is different in the UAE, as the majority of international women do not wear this traditional dress (Katz, 2014). Although KSA receives a large number of visitors from other countries every year, due to the Islamic pilgrimage to Mecca, the country does not actively participate in promoting its tourism industry. KSA places a significant amount of effort into maintaining its religious and cultural values (Buchele, 2008). In comparison, UAE has an interest in changing and adjusting its cultural practices to align with societal changes throughout the world. Therefore, tourism is highly promoted in UAE, and the country receives a significant number of tourists every year, resulting in a considerably large tourism industry that makes a substantial contribution to the country's economy (Katz, 2014; Ramesh, 2012)

It is important to note that although both countries, the UAE and KSA, are in what has

been termed the 'Arab cluster' of countries, the employment situation for women in these countries is very different (Littrell and Bertsch, 2013). The stigma attached to working women, especially in the hotel sector, is stronger in KSA in comparison to the UAE. One reason for this difference may be that KSA is a central country for the Islamic religion, therefore, there is more pressure on the society to maintain its cultural and religious norms and values. The country places more emphasis on conforming to religious values, and is reluctant to implement changes that may lead to a weakening of these values. It is often considered to be the country that sets the example of proper Islamic conduct for other Islamic nations, and therefore has an obligation to ensure appropriate Islamic practices (Buchele, 2008). In comparison, although the UAE is also an Islamic country, its values and attitudes towards working women have changed progressively over time. The country appears to be more aligned with and willing to move forward with the changing world (Littrell and Bertsch, 2013).

UAE also employs a significantly higher percentage of expatriate workers, when compared to the national population, than does KSA. According to the Population Estimates 2006 - 2010 report (FCSA, 2011), there were 8,264,070 employees in the UAE, and only 947,997 (11.5%) are UAE nationals. The remaining 7,316,073 (88.5%) employees are nationals of other countries from all over the world. Furthermore, and of particular relevance for this study, the report also reveals that of a total of 160,121 employees working in the 'Hotels and Restaurants' sector in the UAE, a majority are nationals of non-Arab Asian countries (126,374), followed by nationals of other Arab countries (26,040) (FCSA, 2011).

The employment situation in these two Arab Gulf states is also very different for citizens and expatriates, and there are also differences in the working experiences for expatriates from Arab countries and those of expatriates from other, particularly Western countries. Citizens are familiar with the working environment, as to an extent are expatriates from other Arab countries. However, expatriates, from non-Arab countries have to learn and adjust to the different working environment. Although female citizens are familiar with the working environment and, consequently may not need high levels of adjustment within their workplaces, they still have to face the difficulties associated with society's negative perceptions towards working women. In

turn, although expatriate women have to adjust to the new working environment, they do not experience society's negative perceptions towards working women to the same extent because they are not from that culture, and are seen as 'different' (Stalker and Mavin, 2011).

In conclusion, society's negative perception of working-women is a particular barrier to employment for Arab women. Although some women are not prevented from working by their families, the societal pressure to ensure women remain at home makes it very difficult for working women and their families. Furthermore, Arab society perceives certain employment sectors and jobs to be particularly unsuitable for women. The hotel sector is one of these sectors, due to the nature of the business. Arab society has a negative perception of working women, and therefore, Arab women experience more scrutiny in comparison to women from other countries. This may be because Arab society is indifferent to the behaviour of women who do not belong to their community and only feels an obligation to protect Arab values among women from within their own society. Another reason may be that there is an understanding that although Arab social norms do not allow Arab women to attain employment, it is acceptable and very common in other societies and countries, especially in the Western and European countries.

The cultural values of the Arab society involve very stringent and defined roles for men as well as women. Men are considered to be the breadwinners and hold all financial responsibility for their household. Women are considered to be homemakers and hold all caring responsibilities for their household. This involves caring for their home, husband, children, and any other family who may live within the house. This expectation presents another barrier to employment for women. It is often difficult for women to work full-time and also fulfil their roles at home. This barrier is higher for home national Arab women, in comparison to women of other nationalities working in Arab countries. A majority of Western and European countries do not hold such defined gender roles. In a majority of situations, men actively share caring responsibilities, and women contribute towards the financial responsibilities of the household. Many of the women working in Arab countries have left their families in their home countries, and although they have financial responsibilities towards their family, they do not have

everyday caring responsibilities.

This study does not involve any field research with men, however, arguably one of the reasons that some men may have a negative perception of working women is because it threatens the defined gender roles within the society. Working women within a household may lead to a decrease in their ability to fulfil caring responsibilities and some of these responsibilities may have to be shared with the men in the household. Also, if there are working women within a household, the community may perceive the men in the household as unable to fulfil their financial responsibilities, and degrade men for participating in caring responsibilities, threatening a man's sense of masculinity. In a majority of cases, men would not feel comfortable with that, and would therefore be opposed to women taking work. Therefore, barriers to employment for Arab women are strongly linked to society's perception of working women, which is associated with cultural values and norms.

It is important for employment policies to encourage women to attain employment through addressing these issues and barriers. Flexible working employment practices are one possible practical response. With greater flexibility in organizational policies, more women could secure employment because they could manage work around caring responsibilities. For example, women may be able to work while their children are at school, or work on a part-time basis to focus on their household activities during their time at home. In certain employment situations, it may even be possible for women to work from home, for example, writing online for newspapers and magazines.

The most difficult barrier to address is negative perceptions and attitudes towards working women. Changing cultural values and the society's perceptions and attitudes involves time and patience. Although it will take time for the Arab culture to change and accept working-women, it is important for governmental and company policies to address this particular issue now. At a government level, that may involve running an intensive nationwide marketing campaign that focuses on the positive aspects of employing women, and the negative consequences of discouraging women from employment. For particular industries, e.g. hospitality, a campaign could address society's negative perceptions regarding particular employment sectors and specific

jobs.

1.2 Objectives of this Research

After reviewing the extant literature, the field research was conducted to explore issues affecting working-women using survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews with women working in hotels in KSA and UAE.

The main aim of this study was to enhance understanding and knowledge of:

1. Female employment in the hotel industry in the Arab Gulf states, by comparing the situation in KSA and UAE and including a focus on the different positions of home nationals and foreign national women
2. The barriers and enablers to female employment in hotels in KSA and UAE
3. The influence of the traditional allocation of family care responsibilities on women's experience of employment;
4. The perspectives of working women on flexible employment practices;
5. How the experience of employment for women in KSA and UAE is impacted by country context, nationality, expatriate status and family caring responsibilities

1.3 The Significance of the Study

This study is motivated by a belief in the importance of encouraging women in Arab countries to engage in employment. It focuses on a significant and challenging subject, as one of the main reasons why women are hindered in attaining employment is due to Arab cultural and religious values. The study explores enablers and barriers to female employment, and it also offers suggestions on how these barriers may be lowered.

Today's global business environment involves fierce competition, in which it is important not only for companies to remain competitive, but also for countries to be competitive in relation to each other. The recent period of economic recession has highlighted the importance of continued economic advancement and progression. This gives countries an incentive to utilize all their human resources to their full potential.

Several Arab countries, such as the UAE, have recognised the importance of encouraging women to engage in employment. Nevertheless, while some Arab countries are more receptive to female employment, others countries, such as KSA, fear that allowing women to work will result in large effects on cultural and religious values. Therefore, although these countries may recognise the actual and potential contribution of working-women to the economy, there is a reluctance to forego traditional cultural values. It is however difficult to argue against claims that an increase in the number of working women in the Arab societies would result in economic enhancement, improvement in household income, and importantly, help women's personal development.

In this context, this study aims to identify the barriers and enablers to employment for women in Arab countries. In the light of the evidence collected, some ways of countering the challenges and hindrances to employment faced by women in Arab countries are suggested.

1.4 Originality of the Study

This study focuses on identifying and finding solutions to the barriers faced by Arab women in engaging with employment. The particular barrier of time management between paid work and unpaid work in the family and finding a balance between these two is explored in detail. This has not been a particular focus in other studies. This study also explicitly focusses on the hospitality sector and women who are working in hotels. This sector has not been central to previous research on female employment in Arab countries. In addition, the study explores the experiences of women who are employed at all levels in the employment hierarchy within hotels. The study confirms that one of the main obstacles to employment for Arab women is the responsibilities they hold for maintaining the household and caring for family members, including elderly relatives as well as children living in the home. Flexible working arrangements were considered a way to address this particular barrier. However, women with children or other caring responsibilities are not alone in facing barriers to and in employment.

1.5 Research Questions

This research is focused on the enablers and barriers to women's engagement in

employment, and suggests possible solutions to those barriers. Four related perspectives were considered and six linked research questions were developed to meet the study's main aim and objectives. The relationships between the perspectives, their underlying assumptions and the research questions are illustrated below in figure 1.1., and detailed in table 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Research Perspectives and Research Questions

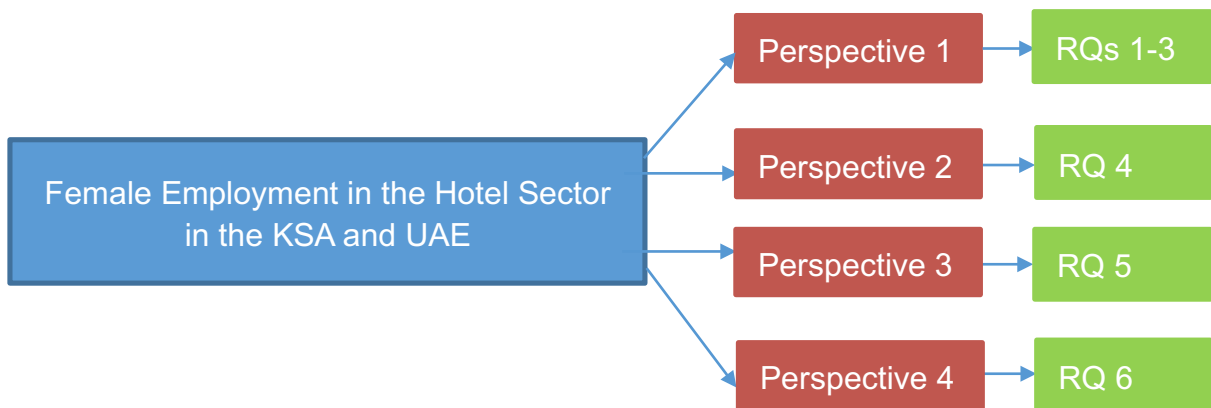


Table 1.1: Perspectives, underlying assumptions and research questions

Perspectives	Underlying assumptions
Perspective 1	For female workers in the hotel sector in KSA and UAE, experiences of looking for work, finding work and work itself vary by country because of cultural and other social differences.
Perspective 2	The experience of work of female workers in the hotel sector in KSA and UAE varies by nationality and ex-patriot status.
Perspective 3	The situation of female workers in the hotel sector in KSA and UAE varies according to their family situation and their stage of life, in particular whether they are married, have children or other caring responsibilities.

Perspective 4	Changes in work practices could improve the work experiences of women working in hotels in KSA and UAE e.g. those that provide more flexibility.
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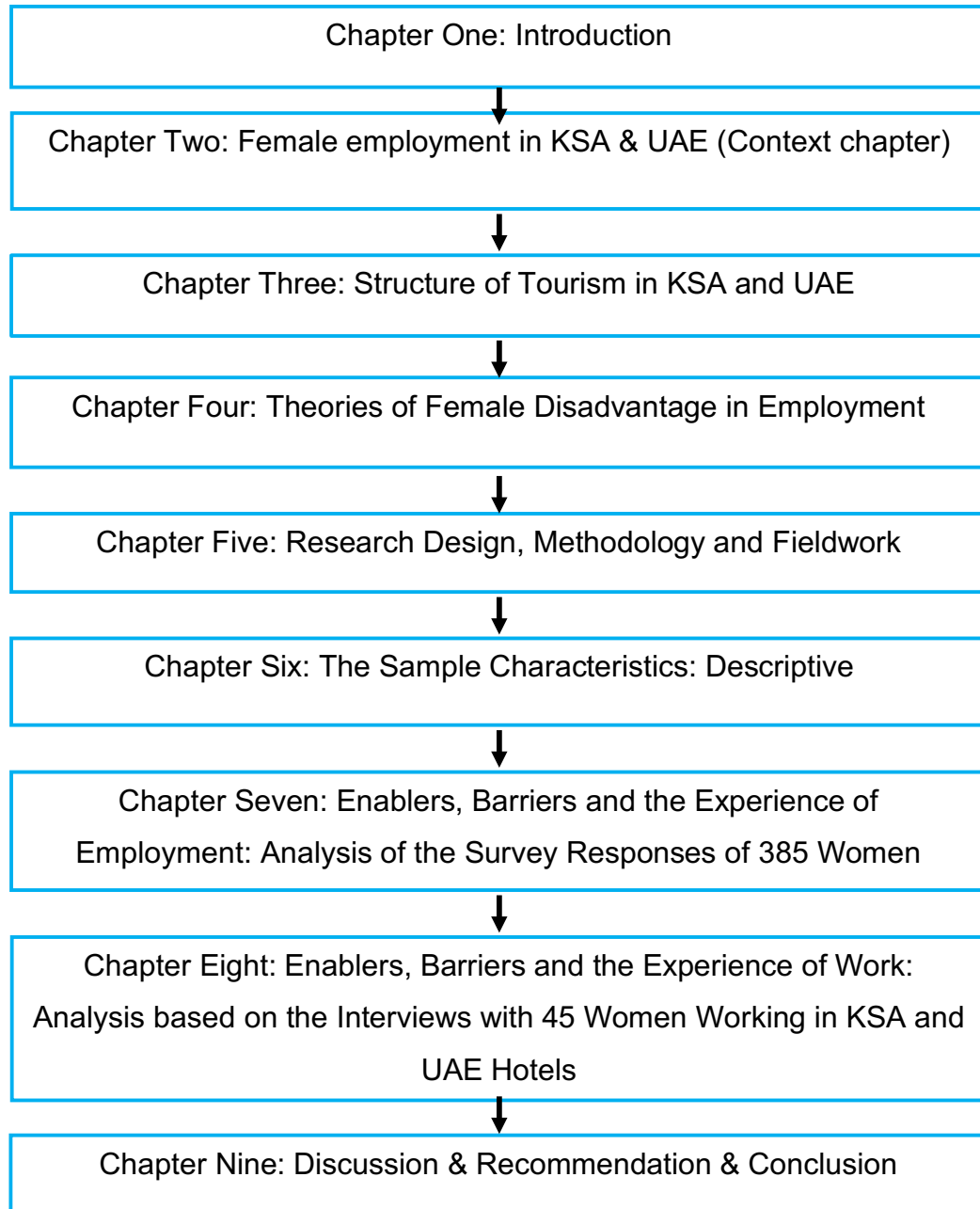
Perspectives	Research Questions
Perspective 1	RQ 1: What are the main reasons and motivations for women to seek employment in KSA and UAE?
	RQ 2: What are the challenges, barriers, and enablers of employment for females in KSA and UAE, in the hotel sector?
	RQ 3: What are the experiences of women working in the hotel sector and how satisfied are they with these experiences?
Perspective 2	RQ 4: What are the differences and similarities between the experience of work for female home national and foreign national workers, Arabs and non-Arabs?
Perspective 3	RQ 5: What are differences and similarities between the experience of work for females with and without children and caring responsibilities and what are the main concerns of working women with caring responsibilities?
Perspective 4	RQ 6: What are the policies and practices that can be implemented to enable females (with and without caring responsibilities) to secure work, stay in work and have better working experiences?

1.6 Thesis Structure

The study is divided into nine chapters, including this introductory chapter. The subsequent chapters include a review of relevant literature, a chapter outlining the

research methods, three analysis chapters and a concluding chapter. The outline of the thesis is depicted in figure 1.2 and the contents of each of the chapters are summarised below.

Figure 1.2: Thesis Layout



Chapter 1: Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the whole thesis. It outlined the study context and background, the main concerns of the research, the aims and objectives of the research, the importance of the study and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2: Female employment in KSA & UAE

The topic of this chapter is female employment in KSA and UAE. It discusses the government role towards female employment in the countries, such as initiatives to encourage women's economic participation and/or policies that discourage women from employment. It also discusses the role of women within the Arab culture and religious values, and considers how this impacts on female participation in employment. An exploration of previous studies on the topic is included, and the different status of Arab and expatriate female workers is reviewed. This literature review provides a foundation for the research conducted for this thesis in providing an overview of the research issue, and it highlights gaps in knowledge that need to be addressed.

Chapter 3: Structure of Hotel/Tourism in KSA and UAE

Chapter three provides an overview and descriptive analysis, based on secondary data, of the tourism industry in Arab countries, with a particular focus on KSA and UAE. It discusses the labour market and employment issues in the tourism industry of both countries with an emphasis on the hotel sector. This chapter includes descriptive analysis of the employment of females and males within the two countries in the tourism sector, both for citizen and expatriate workers.

Chapter 4: Theories of Female Disadvantage in Employment

Chapter four explores theories of female disadvantage in employment, focusing particularly on theories of discrimination and theories of care. This chapter includes an overview of gender-based discrimination in employment, and considers country differences. The employment of females in various Arab countries is explored within this context, as are the challenges and barriers women face in seeking employment in those countries.

Chapter 5: Research Design, Methodology and Fieldwork

Chapter five describes how the primary research for this thesis was conducted. This discussion sets out the research design for the study and explains how the fieldwork was carried out. The research tools (survey questionnaires and individual interviews) are detailed and a mixed method approach is justified. This chapter also sets out the steps taken in the collection of the quantitative and qualitative data and outlines how *SPSS* and *NVivo* software were used in support of the research. The research process – the thesis journey - is illustrated in Figure 1.3 here.

Chapter 6: The Sample Characteristics: Descriptive

Chapter six includes a descriptive analysis of the sample characteristics. The chapter outlines the surveyed participants' demographic characteristics, the type and length of employment, caring responsibilities, and the enablers and barriers to employment. Graphs illustrate data collected from the survey questionnaire to explore some of the relationships within these data.

Chapter 7: Enablers, Barriers and Experiences of Employment: Analysis of the Survey Responses for 385 Working-Women in KSA and UAE Hotels

Chapter seven presents an in-depth quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data, focusing on a comparative analysis of the employment experiences by country, for citizens and expatriate women, and of women with and without caring responsibilities. A particular focus is on an analysis of satisfaction with work experiences. Statistical tests of differences in means, factor analysis and multiple regression techniques are used in this analysis.

Chapter 8: Enablers, Barriers and the Experience of Work: Analysis based on Interviews with 45 Women Working at Hotels in KSA and UAE

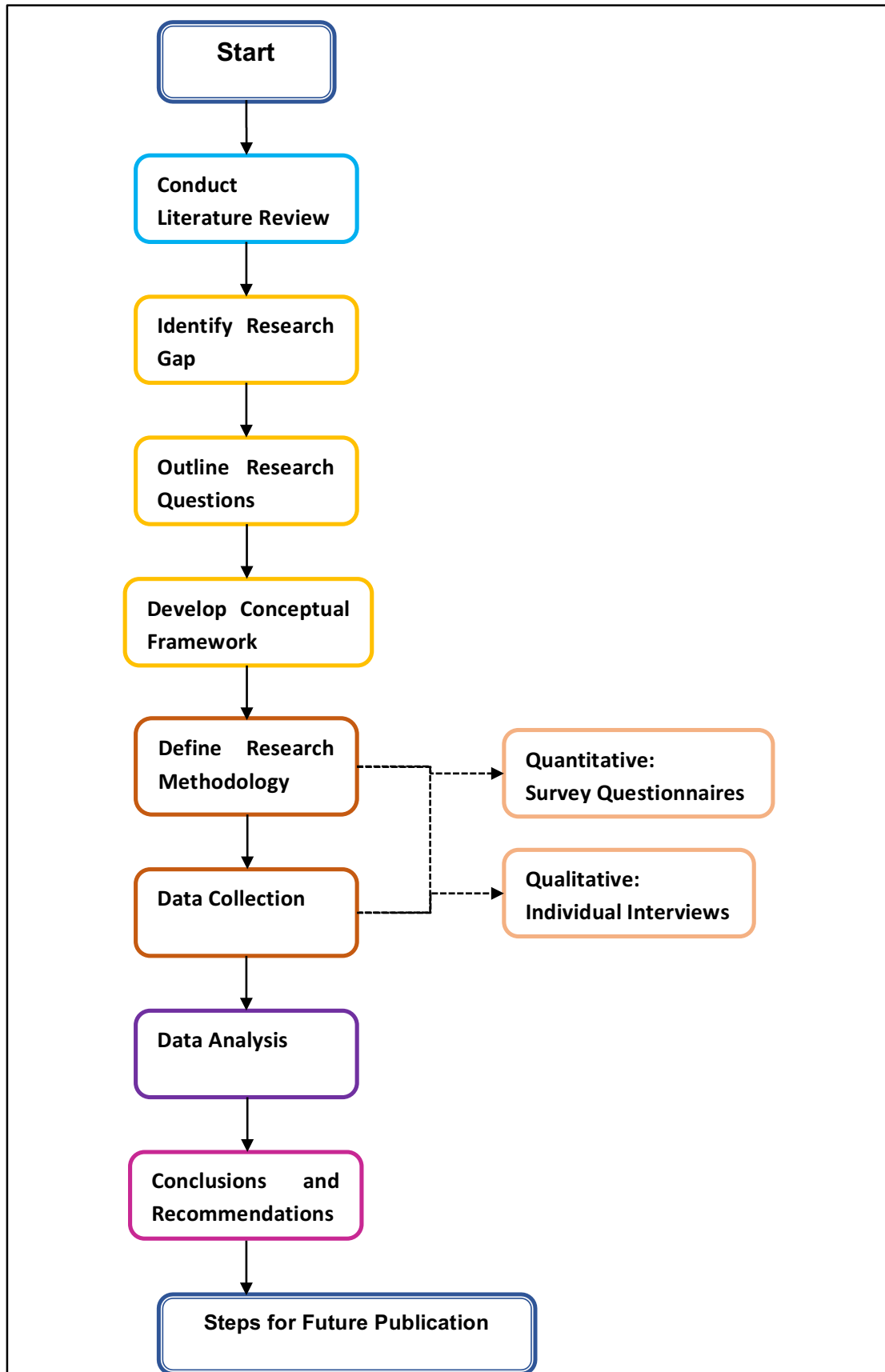
Chapter eight focuses on the qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews with 45 women. The main themes that emerged from these data relate to the barriers and enablers to employment, work-life balance and caring responsibilities, and perspectives on flexible employment practices. Building on the analysis in Chapter 7,

the responses of women (citizens and expatriates) in the two countries, KSA and UAE, are contrasted.

Chapter 9: Findings, Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter nine summarises the main findings of the research, bringing together the quantitative and qualitative elements of the primary research and linking these to the literature reviews, the initial research questions and the overall aims of the study. The chapter summarizes the different ideas and insights that have emerged from the research, explains their relevance to the study topic, and discusses how women within the Arab countries can, and should be, encouraged to engage in employment. It provides recommendations for future research, and suggests policy and practice solutions to address the barriers to employment faced by women in Arab countries.

Figure 1.3: Thesis Journey (The research process)

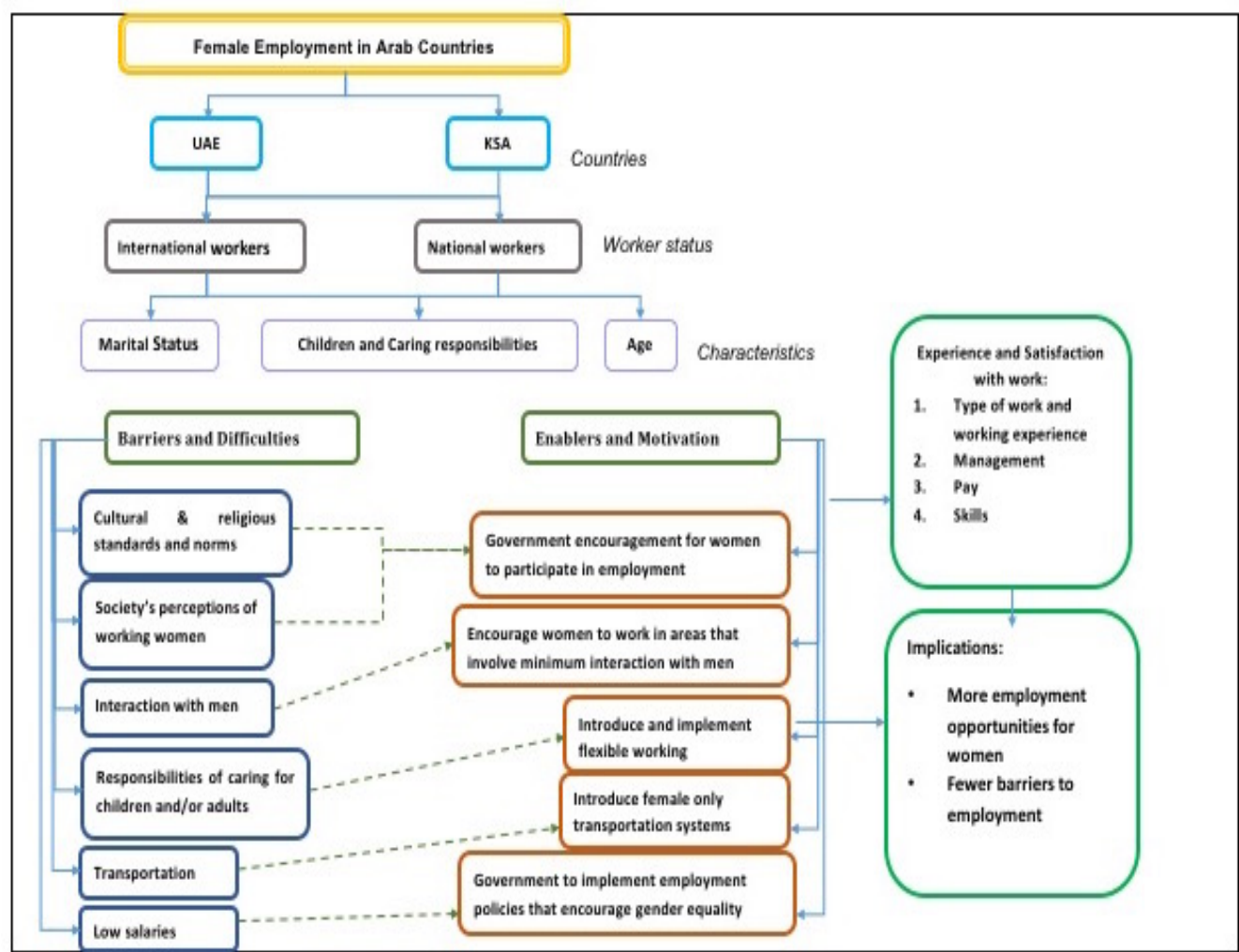


1.7 Framework for the Research

The conceptual framework for this research is illustrated in figure 1.4. This shows the main themes and concepts of the thesis. It provides an outline for the plan of research that was carried out. The link between different concepts (subsequently variables in the quantitative part of the research) is illustrated. This framework is based on the literature reviews in Chapters 2-4, which formed the identification of the concepts and variables to be explored within this study, and the formulation of the main perspectives and assumptions (quasi-hypotheses) and themes, that are explored using questionnaire and interview based research methods. This framework begins with the research topic – female employment in Arab countries. The two countries (KSA and UAE) that were focussed upon are highlighted. The inclusion of citizen and expatriate workers within these countries are included in the framework for study. The research framework aimed to focus on three main characteristics of women workers, i.e. marital status, children and caring responsibilities, and nationality. These characteristics were thought likely to be very relevant in the context of the study.

The framework illustrates how ‘barriers and difficulties’ to employment and ‘enablers and motivation’ for female employment within Arab countries will be explored. The barriers and difficulties that women in Arab countries were expected to experience were thought to include: cultural and religious standards and norms, society’s perception of working women, interaction with men, responsibilities for caring for children and adults, transportation issues (mainly in KSA), and possibly relatively low salaries due to the gendered structure of work. The enablers to employment were thought to include: government encouragement for women to participate in employment, encouragement to work in areas that require minimum interaction with men, access to flexible working, access to female only transportation systems, and employment policies that encourage gender equality. These assumptions and expectations formed the basis for the research which explores women’s experience and satisfaction with work in relation to type of work, management, pay, and skills and the barriers and enablers they face in KSA and UAE. The research also derives policy implications with the aim of diminishing the barriers to employment faced by women in these countries and improving their experience of work

Figure 1.4: Conceptual Framework



Chapter 2

Chapter 2: Female Employment in KSA & UAE

2.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter a detailed introduction to the research topic and the research strategies were provided. The current chapter is based on the empirical evidence on female employment in UAE, KSA and Medina. The main objectives of the chapter are to provide a theoretical base for the conceptual framework of the study. Moreover, it provides a summary of the relevant literature, outlining how previous researchers have carried out their studies and detailing their main findings in the area under consideration. Additionally, the literature review enables the researcher to identify the gaps that exist in the literature, and areas in need of further exploration. The research focus throughout the thesis is on the prevalence of gender discrimination for the employment of woman in the hospitality industry and the hotel sector specifically. The literature review in this chapter examines the work of other researchers detailing how gender discrimination in KSA, UAE and the Medina region is creating barriers to job opportunities for women.

2.1 The Characteristics of the Arab cluster

The GLOBE study gathered information from middle managers living in 61 societies regarding the prevailing practices and values in their societies, and their views relating to exceptional leadership qualities (House et al., 1999). Practices and values were analysed according to nine cultural dimensions, and leadership qualities were analysed in terms of GLOBE's main leadership characteristics (Gupta et al., 2002). The research analysis revealed the following rating for the five countries (Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait, Egypt and Qatar) in the Middle East or Arabic cluster:

Table 2.1: Cultural Dimension and Ratings of Arabic Cluster

Cultural Dimension	Rating
Group and family collectivism	High
Power distance	High
Uncertainty avoidance	Medium
Institutional collectivism	Medium
Humane orientation	Medium
Performance orientation	Medium
Assertiveness	Medium
Future orientation	Low
Gender egalitarianism	Low

Source, Kabasakal and Bodur, journal of World Business 37, 2002. p. 47

According to the Globe Study (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002) people in the Arabic cluster of countries place a significant emphasis on family and have trust in their family members; individuals from all types of living standards and social classes perceive family as an extremely important part of their lives and are expected to give greater importance to the interests of the family than themselves. This pattern continues throughout an individual's life; after marriage, couples continue to be interdependent with their parents and the extended family. This strong interdependence on family members is thought to lower the importance placed on the dimensions of performance and future orientation. Individuals make efforts to develop strong relationships with their relatives, maintain regular contact and help each other whenever necessary. It is considered more important to assist relatives than to give to others in need. These values are taken to be rooted within the Islamic religion and culture and encourage family and kinship relationships, resulting in highly collectivist societies (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). Linked to this, women's considerable family responsibility is thought to be one of the major hindrances to leaving the home in order to pursue a career; women in Arab societies' main priority is their family care responsibilities. Similarly, the male dominated society of KSA considers that the main duty of women is to look after the home and they are strongly discouraged from going outside the home to earn a living

(Universal Periodic Review, 2008; Syeed et al., 2014; Renard, 2014).

There is also hierarchy of relationships within the family, and other group members, found in Arab societies. It is believed that it is necessary to hold absolute loyalty towards the father to maintain the family. Children are taught to respect and obey their elders and authority figures. This concept is reinforced within the Quran, as the holy book promotes acceptance and respect (Voorhoeve, 2016; Arshad, 2013).

In the GLOBE study, one of the main characteristics of the Arabic cluster is its focus on family and groups. There are many advantages to having strong connections within these groups for example due to the interdependent nature of these relationships individuals are better able to cope with future uncertainty. Instead of practising separateness and privacy, these individuals experience security and closeness within their groups. The interdependence within family and groups provides security for people. Therefore, there is a tendency for people in the Arabic cluster to not be as concerned about the uncertainties of the future as people in individualistic cultures which means less planning is perceived to be necessary.

The concept of 'fate' is established in Islam and can influence future orientation negatively. Societies can place low significance on planning and influencing the future, and do not perceive planning to be an important aspect of life (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). A belief in fate is considered a basic principle of faith in God. The Quran states that all occurrences of the past and the future are prearranged and preordained by God. Nevertheless, it is difficult to understand the concept of fate in Islam, as it is also written in the holy book that humans are responsible for their choices and actions.

Differences in social classes and standards are acceptable in Arab culture, even slavery, which existed in Arabic societies for many years (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). However, Islam emphasises providing equal rights to all members of society for example in the *Sunnah*⁴ of the Holy Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) it is written that people should free slaves from those who act in a cruel manner towards them. Moreover, He (PBUH) helped slaves himself and sat with them to eat food. Therefore,

⁴ Sunnah means 'sayings of the Prophet Muhammed (PBUH)'

Islam is promoting human rights, even for slaves. Similarly, the rights of females are implicit, women are allowed to go outside of their home and earn their own livelihood, as the Khadija used to do during her life (Rahman, 2012).

There is a wide difference between the roles and values of women and men in the Arabic cluster. These differences can be attributed to the propositions of Islam, where the religion defines the roles that men and women are expected to fulfil. However, it is also argued that Islam promotes an equal distribution of rights to both genders and has improved women's position in Arab societies in comparison to the pre-Islamic period. This view suggests that the current inequalities between men and women in Arabic societies are attributed to the deeply rooted inequalities that already existed within these societies. This argument is consistent with differences between positions of females in different Arab countries (Moghadam, 1993). For example, in Turkey, women have stronger positions compared to women in other countries in the cluster. In 1930, Turkish women were given the right to vote before even those in some Western countries, while Egyptian women were granted the right to vote in 1956 and Moroccan women in 1963 (The World's Women: Trends and Statistics 1970-1990, 1990). Algerian women gained the right to vote due to French colonial influence; the French argued that Algerian men were treating women unfairly (Bahramitash and Esfahani, 2011). Even in the pre-Islamic period, women had a significant position in the family and in governing positions, and Turkey has a democratic approach towards gender roles (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002).

The Arabic cluster is not standardised in terms of education for women and men, and there are variations depending on nation, class and age. Educated women primarily belong to families with high socio-economic status. More generally, in Arab societies, there are few countries providing equal rights to females; in KSA women are not treated equally to men and they are not given permission to work equally with men in order to support their children and family financially, no matter how poor the family is (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2013).

The Arabic cluster is characterised by a significantly high level of male dominance in terms of societal practices and values (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). For example, in the Saudi Arabian culture, there are defined male and female roles and the role of

women is limited to the home. Outside the home, society is run according to the decisions and labour of the male gender. Moreover, in the home decision-making power also belongs to the significant male (usually the father) and all other family members have to obey and abide by his decisions. Hence, females in KSA are dependent upon men and unable to make decisions about their own lives. This is reflected in the female employment rate in KSA which is only 14%.

2.2 Arab Culture and Context

2.2.1 Overview of Arab Culture

The concept of culture has been studied in a wide range of fields, including psychology, anthropology, organisational behaviour and international business (Tylor, 2010). This research has focused on developing information on values, norms and behaviours in organisations. Although there are specific characteristics of national cultures, clusters of nations are also important and these are usually based on their geographical location (Ronen and Shenkar, 1985). Of particular relevance to this study is the work of The Global Leadership and Organisational Behavior Effectiveness (Globe) research programme (House et al., 2004) (Chhokar et al., 2013) which identifies the Arab culture; although, several nations that did not participate in that study may also belong to this cluster, including countries such as Algeria, Tunisia, Bahrain UAE and KSA. According to the Human Development Index (HDI), the countries in the Arabic cluster are on a medium level representing medium development nations. However, many countries in the Arabic cluster have a high level of economic standing and wealth linked to the region's large oil and gas reserves (UNDP, 2015).

Within the Arabic cluster there are some differences in governmental systems. KSA is ruled by an absolute monarchy. However, the king must abide by Sharia (Islamic law) and the Quran. Political parties and national elections are not allowed (BBC News, 2015). The United Arab Emirates, usually referred to as the UAE or Emirates, was established in December 1971. It consists of seven federal emirates: Abu Dhabi (the capital), Ajman, Dubai, Fujairah, Ras al-Khaimah, Sharjah, and Umm al-Quwain. Jointly, the seven emirates form the Federal Supreme Council, however, each is governed by an absolute monarch. One of the monarchs is elected as the President of the UAE. The UAE is also an Islamic country with Arabic as the primary language,

although English is also spoken especially within business (BBC News, 2015).

The countries in the Arab cluster are Majority Muslim Countries (MMC). The *Quran* is accepted as the holy book of the Islamic religion, and MMC are governed by the teachings of that holy book (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002). Following the traditions of Islam and Sharia, the Arab society is largely male dominated, with men expected to earn a living for their families. The teachings of Islam give rights to females to live their lives independently and give permission for women to work and earn their own livelihood; however, this is not generally a reality in Arab society and females have been restricted to the home only (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Syeed et al., 2014).

However, in addition to commonly held Islamic values, each country in the Arab cluster has its own cultural traditions. For example, in KSA the females are particularly weak and women face challenges in every aspect of life, from the home to the workplace. More generally, discrimination against females is common in the Arab societies where women tend to be treated as inferior to men. The clothing of females in Muslim societies is characteristic of Islam: the veil and headscarf. This clothing signifies protection and a symbol of distinction for Muslim women. Ottoman headgear is considered a typical item for men, with various types attributed to variances in social class. Currently, in urban areas, clothing is highly influenced by Western styles, especially among professional men and women, particularly in Egypt, Morocco and Turkey. However, in KSA even women who come from foreign countries are not allowed to wear Western dress. Although local women in KSA are quite comfortable in traditional Saudi dress, foreign females often feel uncomfortable dressed in such a way while working in KSA (Syeed et al., 2014; Renard, 2014).

Although women in UAE continue to experience a certain level of discrimination due to the cultural and religious restrictions placed on them, the country is arguably one of the most liberal with women's rights among all Arab countries. Unlike in the KSA, women in the UAE are not prohibited from driving, and are not required to wear the traditional hijab (Universal Periodic Review, 2008).

2.2.2 Female Employment in Arab Societies

As discussed in the above sections, women can be restricted from, active economic

participation in Arab societies, due to cultural barriers and the Islamic religion. However, societies in Arabic countries are currently going through a state of change. There are widespread issues relating to underdevelopment, inequality, official inadequacies and illiteracy (Arab Human Development Report, 2015). The world is continuously changing and evolving, however, there is said to be misalignment between the identity of Arabic societies and the changing world. Power structures and societal expectations are changing, and the dynamics of the relationships between males and females are changing. Arabs appear to be in a struggle to find a new identity that does not displace them from their deep-rooted cultural and religious values, and connects them to the future. So far, it has been difficult to find this middle ground (Sidani, 2005).

There are a range of conflicting views on women's involvement in business and political environments in Arab societies. Some argue that women's lack of participation in these environments is due to culture and the Islamic religion (Al- Saadawi, 1997; Mernissi, 1991). It is claimed that Islam is not only a religion with established beliefs and rituals, but also a social order (Weir, 2001). However, the culture of Arab countries creates barriers for female employment as, in these male dominated societies, women are not expected to engage in economic activities and they are restricted to family care roles. Nevertheless, while Islam states that women should prioritise taking care of children, if their financial position and the economy require them to work outside of the home then Islam allows for this within certain boundaries designed to protect women's dignity (Barlas, 2002; Bouachrine, 2014).

The commonly held image of Arabic women among the majority of non-Arab world is of a veiled lady secluded from society. Although this may be the case in some Arab societies and for women from certain social classes, this image has changed significantly from early Arab society. Interestingly, women did not have many rights before the introduction of Islam; however, they participated in the fields of commerce and trade (Steet, 2000). Some tribes allowed women to have a certain degree of independence, and the right to participate in commercial, social and political activities (Khreisat, 1998). However, as time has passed, the economic and political involvement of women has diminished. Even in the early 1990s, some Arabic women were not

allowed the right to an education and public life (Al Faruqi, 1988).

2.2.3 Attitudes towards Working Women

Several factors contribute towards the low numbers of working women in Arab societies. These include the existence of unwritten social values attributed to women in male-dominated societies (Omair, 2008), late entry of women into employment (Mostafa, 2003), the perception of men being the breadwinners (Tary, 1983), and the assumption that employment is less important for women in comparison to men (Kaufman and Fetters, 1980). As discussed in the sections above, Arab women are not encouraged and/or expected to participate in employment due to cultural and religious values. However, there have been significant changes for women within the previous three decades in Arab societies. These have been characterised as Westernisation, modernisation and globalisation, and have resulted in an increase in women's educational attainment, enhanced employment experiences and a decrease in the perception of traditional female roles (Metcalf, 2008). Arabic women are no longer exclusively characterised as frightened, repressed, inferior, domestic, isolated, and confined within their homes. Women are increasingly gaining positions in many types of employment, and are taking a stance within the business environment, in employment and owning businesses (Budhwar et al., 2010). Hence, an evolution in the thoughts and beliefs of Arab males is benefiting females in terms of opportunities for education and work, and this can boost the economy as well as women's own financial position. Moreover, these changes could positively affect the financial position and living standards of all family members in a positive manner.

Although the trend towards acceptance of women in the workforce is prevalent in all Arab societies, In most Arab countries, gender segregation is practised in all aspects of life, in public, at prayer and even at home, particularly in relation to men who are not closely related to a particular female (Guthrie, 2001). For example, KSA is a particularly conservative country, which focuses on strictly following the Islamic teachings and maintaining cultural values. Therefore, in KSA one of the main issues for female employment is the difficulty it can present for maintaining the strict Islamic practice of gender segregation. For that reason, women are encouraged to attain employment in the public sector, within jobs that require interaction with women only, such as teaching

and nursing. However, this has resulted in a high percentage of unemployed graduate females because of over-employment in the nursing and teaching professions. In contrast, many Arab countries have been reliant on an expatriate workforce to fill the labour shortage in the private sector (Abdalla, 1996).

Elamin and Omair (2010) conducted a study to determine Saudi males' attitudes towards working females. The study revealed that Saudi males hold very traditional attitudes: they perceive women as homemakers and primarily responsible for domestic activities. However, single, unemployed, young and educated Saudi males hold less traditional attitudes towards working females in comparison to married, employed, older and less educated males. Since age appears to be one of the factors that determine males' attitudes towards working females, attitudes may become less conservative as the new generation replaces the old one (Budhwar et al., 2010). However, the attitudes and behaviour of many employed Arab males is very traditional, they may not consider working women as honourable, and consequently treat working women in a discouraging and discriminatory manner. Such an attitude will discourage females from seeking employment. In line with this, Metcalfe (2008) argues that women in Arab countries face barriers to employment due to gendered organization of work, and cultural practices. Gender segregation and related work practices significantly limit women's advancement in the public sphere, and this is likely to be reinforced by restrictions on their independence that limit their training and career choice options. Nevertheless, many Arab societies are now trying to encourage female employment, within the framework of Islamic practices, and women have made significant advancements in the roles of politics, leadership and management (Metcalfe, 2008). Metcalfe (2008) argues further that one of the reasons that Middle Eastern women have made advancements in employment is the support from women's organisations, such as the Arab Women Organisation, The Muslim Women's Association, and The Muslim Brotherhood (Arab Human Development Report, 2005). These organisations have enhanced women's empowerment by increasing literacy levels, initiating business programmes and encouraging entrepreneurial development.

In 1995, the UN assembled the Beijing Platform for Women and established the global action plan known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) with eight anti-

poverty goals to be achieved by 2015 (Kemp, 2013). One of the main goals was to empower women and eliminate gender inequality. All of the Arab Gulf States expressed agreement with the MDGs and signed the declaration. The plan involved a requirement for all participating nations to implement gender plans and mechanisms to monitor women's progress. The UN and World Economic Forum (WEF) emphasised the importance of female empowerment for competitive development in the Arab Gulf states. The difference between the rights of men and women is evident in these states and presents major challenges for women's equality and social justice (Metcalf, 2011). While the barriers to employment experienced by Middle Eastern women are arguably similar to those faced by women in many other parts of the world, a significant difference is that in Middle Eastern societies both men and women believe that Islam defines gender roles and responsibilities. This permeates through all aspects and beliefs regarding employment and economic development (Metcalf, 2008).

In the wake of the MDGs, Metcalf (2011) conducted a study on female employment and national human resource development (HRD) frameworks in three Arab Gulf States: Bahrain, UAE and KSA. The study revealed that although women have advanced in these societies, e.g. in terms of political participation in the UAE and educational attainment, the Gulf States are only at a primary stage in relation to the integration of women in HRD systems. The MDGs require nations to establish a mechanism for management of women's development and to work towards empowering women. However, none of the Arab Gulf States has achieved these goals. Metcalf (2011) finds that the most significant progress has been made by women's organisations working with multinational feminist networks, challenging male dominated norms, and enhancing women's educational attainments and employment opportunities. Metcalf (2011) concludes that governments' involvement in women's advancement is insufficient, and the MDGs can only be achieved through collaboration with women's organisations (Islamic and non-Islamic). This evidence suggests that activists in a society can play a vital and significant role supporting females in employment, for example by ensuring that there are suitable working conditions for women. Nevertheless, the role of government is very important, as rules and regulations against gender discrimination in the workplace can help to change the thoughts and views of a society. Both social groups and the government are potential

enablers for the employment of females in Arab countries.

2.3 Role of the Saudi Government in Female Employment

Women around the world face challenges in employment: unequal opportunities, lack of recognition, poor credibility, gender discrimination, family responsibilities and skills insufficiencies (Probert, 2005). However, these challenges are intensified in Arab countries due to the cultural and religious beliefs (Probert, 2005). In line with Sharia law and tribal customs, segregation by gender is practised in KSA, where women are still not allowed to drive (Sadi and Al-Ghazali, 2010), which restricts their employment prospects. Several human rights groups have criticised KSA for systematically discriminating against women (Human Rights Watch, 2015). In KSA the National Society for Human Rights was established in 2004 and is associated with the Saudi government (US Department of State, 2012). For that reason, the country is now placing more emphasis on providing greater opportunities for women (Davies, 2012).

However, despite the aforementioned attitudes and practices, in KSA over the past 10 years, there has been an increase in the participation of women in senior management positions and in the decision-making process in the public and private sectors. The government has placed an emphasis on empowering women through development of women's roles, rather than focusing on women's rights to education and employment (Sperling et al., 2014). There is also a new governmental strategy that aims to position qualified women in leadership and senior roles. Saudi women have recently attained employment in a variety of high status roles in the private and public sectors including: deputy minister, university president, *Sharia* Council consultant, board member of the chamber of commerce (Sperling et al., 2014). Widening opportunities are empowering women in society and working conditions are becoming more suitable for females through the actions of the KSA government. While these actions by the government may largely have been taken because of pressure from the outside world, females are still benefiting (Sperling et al., 2014; Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

For example, in September 2012, King Abdullah declared that women would be allowed to vote in local elections and for the consultative assembly in 2015 (Davies, 2012). Of the total number of people employed in the country, approximately 15% are women, who work mainly in female-only workplaces (Davies, 2012). The number of

mixed gender working environments has increased; however, the number of these is still relatively low (Davies, 2012). There is also considerable segregation by sector, with the majority of working women in KSA employed in the education field, in teaching and administration roles. The table below (2.2) shows the percentage of female labour in the total labour force within each country. These figures refer to people aged over 15 years who are economically active according to the International Labour Organisation's definition of economic activity (World Bank Data, 2016).

2.2: Female Employment Rates by Country

Country	Female employment rate in 2014 (%)
UAE	13.1
Kuwait	27.2
Qatar	13.5
Bahrain	19.6
Saudi Arabia	15.2
Oman	13.4

Source: Adapted from The World Bank Data, Labor force, female (% of total labor force)

In January 2012, a campaign led by Reem Asaad, a women's rights activist, resulted in the government implementing a regulation that allows Saudi women to work in lingerie, cosmetics and shops selling *abayas*, the traditional black cloak worn by women (Davies, 2012). This is important as it allows women to purchase personal items, especially lingerie, from other women. Saudi women should feel more comfortable discussing their needs for these personal items with female sales staff.

A poll conducted by *YouGov* among working Saudi women revealed that 65% aspire to achieve more financial independence (Davies, 2012). However, a barrier to entrepreneurial ventures by women is the lack of financial capital, as they are unable to own property, and also due to the lack of enforcement of the legislation that would provide women with the independence to start their own businesses. The government

is aware of these barriers, and claims that it aims to address them in order to encourage women to join the workforce and engage in entrepreneurial activities (Goby and Eroglu, 2011).

There has been an increase in the participation of Saudi women in education and employment over the past 10 years, which is related to the government's focus on the empowerment and development of women in the country. The aim is to integrate women into the education and employment systems, as well as involve them in public affairs (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). However, the attainment of a degree does not necessarily enable women in KSA to gain employment. According to the Deputy Minister of Labour, Abdul Wahid Al-Humaid, a majority of unemployed Saudi women are highly educated: 78.3% hold university degrees (Ghafour, 2009). In comparison, unemployed men have less education. However, the education system in KSA does not appear to provide sufficient support for Saudi women to attain employment in competitive positions, such as higher managerial roles and jobs with higher salaries. Many unemployed women (34%) (Jiffry, 2014) are educated to a high level, and hold a terminal degree. Women have limited opportunities for employment, and are restricted to specific industries in the private sector, such as business services (World Bank, 2011). Women also focus their education in specific areas: in 2007, 93% of all women who have finished their studies were education and humanities majors (Almunajjed, 2010). The limited number of graduate positions available for women (and men) resulted in many Saudi nationals trying to find jobs outside the country. More than 300 Saudi women subsequently gained employment in the education sector in Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar (Almunajjed, 2010).

Despite the religious and cultural restrictions placed on women in KSA, the country has a 91% female literacy rate. The country claims to have almost completely eliminated illiteracy among the younger generations of Saudi women (Drury, 2015). This is a significant change from the previous noted figures by UNESCO in 2007 of an estimated 20.6% illiterate Saudi women over 15 years old (UNESCO, 2007). There have also been several noted achievements in women's education during King Abdullah's reign, such as establishment of the first co-ed university in KSA, The King

Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), and the world's largest female-only university, the Princess Nora Bint Abdulrahman University (Drury, 2015).

Although KSA has almost completely eradicated illiteracy among women in the country, and established further education opportunities for women, these progressions have not significantly translated into widespread labour force participation for Saudi women. The country's female labour force participation is 20 percent, less than half that of that in the neighbouring countries of Kuwait and the UAE (Drury, 2015). Nevertheless, despite KSA's standing in comparison to its neighbours and other countries in the Arab cluster, the improvements have been significant. Women's labour force participation has tripled over the past few decades, with an increasing number of women being employed in different and new roles, such as supermarket cashiers, in the areas of banking, IT, architecture, and science and as Olympic athletes and. Previously, women's employment opportunities were limited to the education and medical sectors (Drury, 2015).

However, there are regional differences. The rural areas of KSA are more conservative and therefore people are more likely to be illiterate in these areas, with higher levels of unemployment (see Table 2.3) (Alamri, 2011). Women in these areas are doubly challenged because of the higher illiteracy rate and limited employment opportunities.

Table 2.3: Unemployment Rates in Rural Areas of KSA

Area	Unemployment rate (%)
Hael	35
Eastern Region	32
Makkah al Mukarramah	29
Al Madinah al Munawarah	28
Asir	23
Al Qassim	17

(Adapted from Al Eqtisadiyah, 2009)

Although the laws and regulations in KSA, which are based on Sharia law, provide women with the right to attain employment, they specify that the employment must be in an appropriate environment that does not require interaction with men. Therefore, gender segregation by occupation in the country means that Saudi women are only able to work in certain professions. 95% of employed Saudi women are working in the public sector, which provides reasonable job security and financial rewards, and 30% of all government employees are women (World bank, 2012). Only 5% of all working Saudi women are in the private sector, mainly in banking, where the range of jobs available to women is limited (Randeree, 2012).

In contrast to these figures, on female employees, 12% of all companies in KSA are owned by women; this includes 16% of the largest manufacturing companies (Zamberi, 2011). However, Saudi women are effectively obliged to obtain permission from a *wakil*, a male guardian, to be involved in any business. Although this obligation has been officially overturned, implementation and enforcement of the previous legislation remains (Almunajjed, 2010). However, this change in legislation gives women more independence, and shows how women in KSA are beginning to win rights. Thus, indicating that formal social rules can be changed to become an enabler for female employment instead of creating barriers.

One reason why the KSA government is placing more emphasis on promoting Saudi women's employment is that it wishes to be in line with international norms and laws such as the MDGs. In addition, the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) prohibits discrimination against women in employment and occupation (Wotipka and Ramirez, 2008) and the International Labour Organisation's Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention requires approved members to promote a non-discriminatory national labour policy (Almunajjed, 2010). By agreeing to and signing these conventions, KSA is obligated to commit itself to uphold and implement their requirements, which is a binding requirement under international law (Almunajjed, 2010).

The Saudi government has taken several legislative steps at the national level to promote female employment. The Saudi labour code gives all citizens, men and

women, the right to engage in employment, and specifies that all employers must provide training opportunities for all employees (Achoui, 2009). In 2004, the Council of Ministers agreed to Regulation No. (120) (12/4/1425H), which is a measure that aims to promote Saudi women's involvement in the economy (Baki, 2004). In 2006, the Saudi Arabian labour code was reviewed to include improvements for women regarding maternity and medical care leave, nursery provision, annual leave and pensions (Eighth Five-Year Development Plan, 2005-2009). The government's Eighth Five-Year Development Plan (2005-2009) highlighted the importance of employment and advancement opportunities for women, in line with the importance of their contribution to the economy. Initiatives also included a call for a study to identify women's needs in employment; campaigns to promote awareness of women's employment; an increase in the number of women in the government and private sectors; and the establishment of support services for women, such as day-care centres (Metcalf, 2008).

The Saudi government has also placed emphasis on job creation and training for women. The Human Resource Development Fund (HADAF) aims to create employment opportunities for females in KSA, e.g. through telecommunication initiatives with private sector companies. In 2010, more than 4,120 women in KSA had been supported to attain employment, through job creation and training (Ramady, 2010). The government's plan includes the establishment of 17 technical colleges throughout the country specifically for women. Importantly for this study, the government is also encouraging more female participation in the tourism industry. In the city of Al Khobar more than 30 Saudi women are now employed by five-star hotels, in roles such as marketing and reservations (Arab News, November, 2008, Saudi Gazette, 2009). In the city of Tabuk, where the number of tourists is growing, several Saudi women are employed as guides (Arab News, November, 2008, Saudi Gazette, 2009).

Public sector initiatives have mainly focused on employing the educated urban young. However, there are also a number of Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) that are focused on the creation of employment opportunities, e.g. by providing free training

programmes and websites specifically for women's employment and recruitment. One example is provided by Al-Nahda Recruitment (see www.tawdeef.com); in 2009 that company indicated that they had created employment opportunities for 1,015 women in banks, education, factories, and in social and health associations and institutes (Al Nahda Philanthropic Society for Women, 2009). Another example is the King Abdul Aziz Women's Charity Association's, Al Barakah Loans Center, that aims to provide funds for divorced and widowed women with low incomes (King Abdul Aziz Women's Charity Association, 2009). The fund has aided more than 800 Saudi women through projects that involve the sale of clothing, livestock, furniture, and coffee and waffle stands (King Abdul Aziz Women's Charity Association, 2009). This has helped those females who desperately need their own income because there is no one else to provide them with a livelihood. Through such organisations, women are beginning to gain respect and opportunities in KSA.

In relation specifically to job creation, in 2009, the Productive Family Project program created 24,772 jobs for Saudi women through small loans and training in the fields of cooking, first aid, beauty and tailoring (Arab News, January, 2008). In 2005, the agency, Empowering Capabilities, Skills and Aptitude (ECSA), was established to focus specifically on the recruitment of women. The agency also organises orientation and training programmes, and has placed more than 200 women in employment. Other organisations also support women and men towards employment. In 2005, the Centennial Fund, a non-profit financial service, was set up to assist small businesses and young entrepreneurs outside the country's large cities. The initiative provides funding as well as mentoring services for three years to entrepreneurs. In 2003, the Adbul Latif Jameel (ALJ) Community Services Programs was established to address the country's growing unemployment rate, and it has developed more than 113,855 employment opportunities for women and men.

The Saudi government plans to construct a women-only industrial centre, which will provide a working environment for female workers that aligns with the country's cultural values (Davies, 2012). The centre will be built in the Eastern Province city of Hofuf. There are several other women-only centres planned for other Arab Gulf States, which

aim to create an environment that enables women to engage in employment, and achieve independence while maintaining the cultural norm of gender segregation. The government is considering four similar industrial centres for women only in the capital city of Riyadh, which will enable women to have a more important role in the country's development. The Saudi Industrial Property Authority (MODON) is responsible for building the centre at Hofuf, which is expected to create approximately 5,000 jobs in the pharmaceutical, textile and food-processing industries. The centre is strategically placed at a location within close proximity to residential neighbourhoods, which will enable women to commute to and from work (Davies, 2012). This increase in the employment of women should increase the efficiency of the Saudi Arabian economy. Globalisation has initiated many changes within KSA and its business environment, and in the development of the country's economy. This includes the inclusion of more women in the working environment (Achoui, 2009). Saudi women are now being recruited into leadership positions in both the public and private sectors, including roles such as Chamber of Commerce board members, university presidents, Sharia Council consultants, and to many other high-level positions (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). However, the effectiveness and the level of authority provided to women in these roles are questionable. Women in these positions may hold the job title, but their decisions and other work responsibilities may be wholly or partially influenced by men within the work environment. That is because the ownership of most of the organisations is with men, and female leaders are still bound to work under their influence (Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

The study conducted by Al-Ahmadi (2011), referred to above, examined the leadership of women in KSA. This study revealed that, despite the government's efforts to integrate women into the workforce and provide better working conditions, women were still facing challenges in the workplace due to structural and cultural factors. These factors limited their effectiveness as leaders, which, according to Almenkash et al. (2007), is also the case in other Arab Gulf countries. Further findings from this study evidenced that the main challenges for women in leadership positions were limited opportunities in higher education; discrimination in appointments and promotion; the attitudes of male leaders towards working females; male-dominated workplaces; the resistance of men to women in workplaces, especially in leadership positions; lack of

a professional network; lack of training and development programmes; lack of quality day-care centres; dual responsibilities of traditional caring and professional roles, including the related need to create a balance between traditional roles as a wife and mother, and professional roles (Al-Lamki, 1999; Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

Although many Saudi, and other Arab women receive domestic help, either from employing paid servants or relatives, their most important responsibilities are still perceived as housework and childcare (Omair, 2008). Given the importance of their domestic and family responsibilities, it may be possible to assist women into employment to overcome a lack of quality day-care centres and redress the importance attached to their traditional responsibilities. A formal flexible working environment could include working hours that are feasible for female workers, such as working long hours when required or providing the facility to work from home if possible. Flexible working could help in increasing a balance between personal and professional lives. Also, providing women with the facility of pick up and drop is an aspect of flexible working that might favour females. Moreover, females could be allowed to send another person in their place if unable to come to work for any reasons. More importantly, women should be provided with extra flexibility during pregnancy and maternity leave and a reasonable amount of annual leave should be provided (Bryman, 2012). Flexible working arrangements may not though address all of the educational and employment issues faced by Saudi women.

On a separate, but related point, a major concern for governments, in relation to employment in Arab countries, is the increasing number of expatriate workers and the low number of women in employment. In KSA '*Saudisation*' refers to the country's policy to replace its foreign workforce with Saudi nationals. As part of this strategy, the government's Saudisation policy has identified employment roles that are particularly appropriate for women workers including jobs within the hospitality and leisure/recreation industry, such as tailors, nutritionists, receptionists, banquet-hall employees, governesses, beauticians, photographers, caterers (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). Although hospitality has been identified as an acceptable industry for women's employment, only certain types of jobs within hotels may be deemed appropriate for

them. For example, jobs that may require extensive contact with men may not be considered appropriate for female KSA nationals (Al-Ahmadi, 2011).

As noted earlier, the main reasons for women refraining from employment are linked to cultural and religious beliefs. These beliefs cause those who hold them to view women as homemakers, and to deem it inappropriate for them to converse, and have interaction with men outside the family. The challenge that the Saudi and other Arab governments face is how to create a balance between encouraging women to engage in employment and business activities, without compromising cultural and religious values and beliefs (Goby and Erogul, 2011;Erogul and McCrohan, 2008). The implementation of flexible working policies could help women to maintain a balance between their work and family lives, and that maybe a solution to the wider employment problems relating to labour supply. Hence, women's family care duties could be fulfilled while they also contribute to the financial success of the company.

To summarise, a combination of social activist movements and the policies of the KSA government are providing more freedom and independence to women and helping them to live their own lives according to their own will and wishes. However, regardless of high qualifications, work experience and the ability to perform in leadership roles, Saudi women encounter many challenges that restrict their achievements and hinder their potential as workers and leaders.

2.4 Role of the UAE Government in Female Employment

Since the establishment of the nation, the UAE's government has aimed to empower women and has encouraged them to participate in all aspects of the country's workforce and economy. The UAE Constitution guarantees equal rights for men and women, according to the principles of Islam. This has led to recognition of the importance of diversity for economic and social development, and women are considered to be equal partners in achieving sustainable development.

Emirati women are well represented within all aspects of the society, including politics, diplomatic, judiciary and the commercial sectors. According to UAEinteract (2015). There are five women in the Cabinet in ministerial positions, including in the position of Secretary General of the Cabinet. Statistics from UAEinteract (2015) indicate that 20 percent of the UAE's Federal National Council is represented by women. In November 2015, one of these women was elected as Speaker for the first time in the Gulf region. 66 percent of the public sector workforce in the UAE are also women, with the world average being 48 percent. 30 percent of these women are in senior and decision-making positions (UAEinteract, 2015).

In 2014, the UAE was the first Arab country and the second country in the world to implement a policy that specifies a compulsory women presence in the boardroom. This was initiated by the Cabinet on the basis that the appointment of more capable women in leadership roles within a male-dominated society will result in more competitiveness, innovation and entrepreneurship. The increasing prevalence and importance of women within the workforce in the UAE highlights the perception that there is no 'glass ceiling' for women in the country (UAEinteract, 2015).

The access to and encouragement of women to participate in education has significantly facilitated women's empowerment in the UAE. 95 percent of female high school graduates continue into further education at tertiary-level institutions, in comparison to 80 percent of males (UAEinteract, 2015).. Women represent nearly two-thirds of students attending government universities and more than half at private tertiary-level institutions. Academically, women are often outperforming males and are increasingly entering areas of studies that were traditionally considered to be male orientated, such as science, technology, engineering and mathematics (UAEinteract, 2015).

However, despite government initiatives and encouragement, the increasing level of education among women, and the increasing number of businesses owned by women, overall female employment has not been in alignment with educational achievements.

46.6 percent of women over the age of 15 are in the workforce, in comparison to 91 percent of men (UAEinteract, 2015).

There is concern among the UAE government, the Federal National Council (FNC) and UAE nationals, that with the increasing number of expatriate workers in the country, the interests of UAE nationals are marginalised in society and the economy (Gallant and Pounder, 2008). Figures in 2001 revealed that approximately 50% of the foreign workers in UAE comprise people from the Indian subcontinent – India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. It is estimated that 60% of the public sector workforce in UAE is accounted for by expatriate workers, with the construction and service industries employing the majority of expatriate workers (Zachariah et al., 2002). Approximately two-thirds of the expatriate workers do not have secondary education and are employed as unskilled and cheap labour (Zachariah et al., 2002). The government's fear is that the influx of expatriate workers is obliterating the country's identity, as the foreign culture has and is influencing society. Therefore, the government is focusing more on creating a balance between UAE and expatriate workers and implementing appropriate policies such as the *Emiratization* policy (Zachariah et al., 2002; Zeffane and Kemp, 2012).

The UAE's visas policy, implemented in 1999, addressed three main issues: demographic imbalance, increasing numbers of expatriate workers and dependence on unskilled workers. The policy controls the entry of unskilled workers and encourages the provision of training to existing unskilled workers. The aim is to create a working environment of skilled workers in the knowledge economy (Zachariah et al., 2002).

As noted, UAE has placed considerable emphasis and effort on educating the female population within the country to engage in business operations (Nelson, 2004). In 2000, 77% of students in UAE universities were female (Kassadi, 2000). Today, women represent 28% of the workforce, with involvement in the fields of engineering, science, computer technology, healthcare, law, media, commerce, government, education and the oil industry (Erogul and McCrohan, 2008). Furthermore, these

authors argue that in comparison to other Arab Gulf states, the number of females involved in business is higher in UAE, although it is lower when compared to other countries with similar levels of GDP per capita, such as Finland, Norway and Singapore (Erogul and McCrohan, 2008). Therefore, UAE is quite effective in including local and expatriate females in the workforce through enabling women's independence. For example, expatriate women are allowed to dress modestly but are not required 'to cover. Consequently, the working conditions are quite suitable for females from foreign countries. However, despite these opportunities, local females may still face condemnation from their families if they follow the non-Islamic values of UAE and try to earn their livelihood.

2.5 Female Employment and the Position of Women in other Arab Countries

The recent political revolutions in Arab countries such as Egypt, Tunisia and Libya have changed the social and political environment of these countries (Aslan, 2013). However, it is uncertain how these changes will influence the position of women within these countries. From one perspective, new Islamic governments in Arab countries may lead to a reversal in women's rights in these regions. However, the social and political energy resulting from the revolutions may lead to a stronger female presence in society and government, in comparison with women's position under previous authoritarian rule (Aslan, 2013; Salbi, 2013).

According to Naderah Chamlou, the senior advisor to the chief economist for the Middle East and North Africa at the World Bank, women's position within Arab society depends less on the government and the political stance of the country, and more on their ability to progress and contribute towards the economic sphere (Okin, 2013). The strength of a country's political environment is also argued to depend on developing a strong middle-class society, with the full and equal economic involvement of women (Okin, 2013). However, current female unemployment rates in Arab countries are the highest in the world (Aslan, 2013). This is likely to make it difficult for a middle-class society to be developed, leading to less secure democracy and most likely little to no change in women's rights (Aslan, 2013; Salbi, 2013).

In general, women in Arab countries are qualified and well positioned to have an active involvement in the region's labour force. Female literacy rates in the Arab countries are almost equal to those of men, except in Yemen and Morocco (Chaaban, 2009). The number of male and female college graduates is very similar within Arab countries, 5.1 million women and 5 million men. However, some sources suggest that Arab women's achievements are higher in sciences, technology and engineering, in comparison with Arab men, but that they are not offered the same opportunities in employment that would allow them to contribute towards the economy (Aslan, 2013; Tzemach, 2013).

Chamlou (2012) conducted a survey with 5,000 companies in Europe that recruit professionals for jobs in Arab countries. The research revealed that these companies would prefer to recruit women over men because women are considered better employees for their higher level of 'soft skills', such as dedication, reliance, and trustworthiness. However, a large number of those companies said that Sharia law was the greatest impediment to employing Arab women. This finding is based on the companies' own perceptions of women's cultural limitations in Arab countries, even though the extent of these limitations varies from country to country. This means, although these companies wanted to recruit women for certain positions, they were cautious about so doing because of their assumptions regarding the limitations and restrictions of women in Arab societies. This is likely to hinder many Arab countries from gaining a competitive advantage in the global market since 50% of the potential labour, i.e. women, are not provided with equal access to the workforce (Aslan, 2013). Overall, countries that provide equal opportunities for females and males in education have stronger economies, for example, in the USA women are more educated than men: 67% of college graduates are females and 70% of employed graduates are women (Gordon, 2012).

The Emir of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum (Prime Minister and Vice President), and other UAE leaders, have recognised that their country is disadvantaged by a lack of women in the workforce, and have made efforts to change the situation. Sheikh Mohammed implemented a plan that dictates that all public

companies in the country are to have at least one woman on the board (Aslan, 2013). This is a significant, positive step towards economic progress for women in the country. It is important that other Arab countries recognise the disadvantages of excluding women from the workforce, consider these positive steps, and take appropriate action towards integrating women in economic development (Aslan, 2013). These actions create opportunities for female employment by enabling and encouraging women in work.

Table 2.4: Percentage of Women Employed in the Public Sector in Managerial Positions

Country	Year	Percentage	Sources
Algeria	2004	5	Labour Force Survey
Bahrain	2001	12	Population Census
Egypt	2006	11	Labour Force Survey
Morocco	2006	11	Labour Force Survey
O.P.T	2007	10	Labour Force Survey
U.A.E	2005	10	Population Census

Source: Adapted from DiCecio et al., 2008

Table 2.4 summarises the employment participation of women in managerial positions in the public sector for six Arab countries, that have relatively high female employment. The public sector is a sector that has traditionally employed women in Arab countries as it includes jobs that women are expected to work in, such as in health and education. In KSA women constitute only 7% of the employed population and 90% of these females are working in the health and education sectors. In comparison, Morocco offers a comparatively better picture: of their entire employed female population, 48% are in the health sector; 22% work in higher education and scientific research; and 33% work in primary and secondary education, and a somewhat similar picture is depicted in other Arab countries such as Egypt and Tunisia (Trading Economics, 2009).

There are many constraints in decision-making about employment roles and the design of work for women, but now there is some hope for more gender inequality because

many countries in the Middle East region are modernizing. This change has happened in part because of movements and initiatives internationally that have made it clear that it is time for Arab countries to change their policies towards female empowerment. In many Arab states, labour laws are being changed to give women more power and protect them in many ways, for example, Jordan and Egypt prohibit discrimination in the workplace (Hemida et al., 2012). Many Arab countries provide support for female workers including:

- Provision for maternity leave – e.g. Iran (Tepper, 2014)
- Not allowing women to be laid off from work during maternity leave – e.g. Egypt (UNDP, 2005; USAID, 2009)
- Leave to care for infants – e.g. Morocco (UNDP, 2005)
- In Jordan, male and female workers can take extended leave to accompany their spouse when moving to a new workplace (UNDP, 2005)

In KSA, the economic activity rate for women is 7% and for Sudan it is a maximum of 31.5%, while the male economic activity rate was between 94.5% in UAE and 63.4% in Gaza and adjoining areas. In addition to this, the gender employment gap has doubled in Kuwait and KSA. Table 2.5 shows the percentage of males compared to females employed in UAE and KSA from 2005 to 2013. The gap between the activity rate of working men and women is narrowest in Kuwait at 36%, while it is broadest in KSA at 60.7%.

Table 2.5: The Percentage of Males as Compared to Females Employed in UAE and KSA from 2005 to 2013

Countries	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
KSA % of female working in Industries	-	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.5	-	2.0	1.5
KSA % of male working in Industries	-	23.4	24.0	22.7	23.3	-	25.6	28.1

UAE % of female working in Industries	6.2	-	-	7.1	6.4	-	-	-
UAE % of male working in Industries	44.8	-	-	28.3	27.1	-	-	-

Source: Adapted from World Bank Data website

These figures suggest that the employment pattern of women and their percentage participation in the labour force varies between Arab countries. Some countries are more in line with international laws and others follow their own national legislation. In more diversified economies, the participation rate of women is near to the regional average, as in Egypt, Syria and Lebanon (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). During the past two decades, participation of women in the labour force has increased significantly; by 1.6% each year during the 1990s in most Arab states (Fogli and Veldkamp, 2011). The increase was higher in Bahrain and Algeria compared to Libya and KSA, while the increase was highest in UAE. An increase in the female labour force was seen in all age groups, but it was highest among young women in the 25 to 34 age group, particularly in Algeria, Bahrain and Tunisia. However, even though the employment rate of women is increasing, it is still low compared with male employment.

2.6 Expatriate Female Employment in Arab Countries

Expatriate in European countries, the Americas and Australasia generally hold a negative view of the working environment in Arab countries. Arab countries are perceived according to the image portrayed in the media of violence, instability and oppression (Avraham and Ketter, 2008). The business environment is male-dominated and it is thought that very few expatriate women, particularly expatriate women, would want to work in such a society. However, expatriate women are increasingly finding career opportunities in Arab countries, such as UAE, and are successfully working there (Harrison and Michailova, 2012).

Moving to a different country is a difficult process and may involve relocating a spouse and children. In the new country, the individual may experience challenges of adjusting

to new professional structures and building social connections. Moving to a different country involves learning new psychological and behavioural norms (Black and Mendenhall, 1990), (Selmer et al., 1998). Although men and women expatriates experience the same cultural differences, women experience more challenges in many Arab countries because of the male-dominant value system and complicated family systems (Taylor and Napier, 1996). Nationals may also challenge their professional competence and prefer men to be in higher positions (Taylor and Napier, 1996), (Caligiuri and Tung, 1999).

Previous research indicates that when there are significant cultural differences between the expatriate's home country and host country (for example, as in Western and Arab cultures), expatriates are more likely to experience dissatisfaction with their host country (Torbiörn, 1982), (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Overall, Arab countries provide women with limited rights while women in Western countries have a lot of freedom. For example, expatriate women are free to work outside of the home while Arab women have to abide by the strict rules of Islam and society and because of these some working practices including late working hours may be less of a concern for expatriate females than for Arab females.

Harrison and Michailova (2012) carried out a study with female expatriates working in UAE. The study considered cultural differences between Arabic-speaking countries – Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, KSA and UAE; and English speaking countries – Australia, New Zealand, the UK and USA. The study explored the adjustments, cross-cultural training (CCT), and social and support experiences of these women. Although the women were provided with CCT, many believed it to be a waste of time and money, as they are rarely required to interact with nationals. The results indicated that expatriate women in Arab countries may experience difficulties due to these cultural differences (Harrison and Michailova, 2012), (Ahmed, 2008) reports similar findings.

It is also important to consider expatriate's spouses and family, and their ability to adjust to the new environment. (Tung, 1982), (Black et al., 1991), (Linehan, 2002). This is important for female expatriates when their spouse assumes full or shared non-

traditional male values, such as for the housework and childcare. In societies where males work outside the home and women stay at home, as in Arab culture, non-traditional husbands particularly if they do not work may experience difficulties, which may place stress on family relationships.

The host country culture may lead to family adjustments particularly for expatriate women. Several studies suggest that 'social support' is a determining factor for expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (Black, 1990), (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985), (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002). Social connections provide emotional, informational or influential support, which assists in the adjustment process (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002), (Johnson et al., 2003). According to Farh et al. (2010), expatriates' ability to adjust in a new country depends on their ability to develop social connections that meet their adjustment process needs. Other studies have emphasised the importance of developing relationships with the host country nationals (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985), (Adler, 1987), (Caligiuri and Cascio, 1999) Expatriates who are able to confidently interact and socialise with nationals are better able to adjust in the new culture as the interactions result in a higher level of understanding of the host country's appropriate behaviours and customs (Black, 1988); (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002). Other studies suggest that it is important for expatriates to form social connections with other expatriates (Brewster and Pickard, 1994); (Johnson et al., 2003); (Farh et al., 2010). Established expatriates are better able to understand the new expatriates' situations and are able to provide relevant cultural and practical information e.g. in relation to the location of leisure activities and shops (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002). In countries with a large number of expatriates, such as the Arab countries, expatriates are likely to interact more with other expatriates. One of the reasons for this is that expatriates may be restricted in their ability to interact with nationals due to language differences and social and cultural norms. As local females are less likely to be in the workforce, they unlikely to interact with expatriates. Moreover, local females do not know the norms, values and modes of communication that are appropriate in dealings with expatriates.

In their study, Harrison and Michailova (2012) found that female expatriates are able to work and enjoy life in Arab society. Although Arab countries are perceived by the expatriate world as being inhospitable, expatriates women can have successful careers within these countries. Expatriate women may believe that they are perceived as women first and then as professionals, and may want to interact more with other expatriates than home nationals. But as the number of working women increases in Arab countries, and as more expatriate women take jobs in Arab countries, the dynamics of these working environments will continue to evolve. Expatriate women who have an understanding of Arab cultural norms, their position as women in the society and who actively form social connections are better suited to successfully adjust in an Arab country (Whiteoak et al., 2006). However, they will rarely have the responsibilities for their families that Arab women usually do. Expatriate women have more flexibility as outsiders as society does not subject them to the same ideals as are held for local women consequently the experience of employment for local females is often tougher than for expatriate female.

2.6.1 Expatriate Workers in the UAE

The UAE's economy is highly dependent on foreign labour, with the highest percentage of foreign workers in comparison to national workers among the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries (Snoj, 2015) which includes Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, KSA, and the UAE (Sikimic, 2014). 90% of the UAE's population consists of immigrants, and 10% are nationals (Snoj, 2015). Table 2.6 below shows the percentage of immigrants of different nationalities in the UAE.

Table 2.6: The Percentage of Nationals and Population by Country (2009-2015)

NATIONALS OF	POPULATION	% OF TOTAL POPULATION	YEAR OF DATA
India	2,600,000	27,15%	2014
Pakistan	1,200,000	12,53%	2014
UAE	1,084,764	11,32%	2015
Bangladesh	700,000	7,31%	2013
Philippines	525,530	5,49%	2014
Iran	400,000 – 500,000	4,18% – 5,22%	N/A
Egypt	400,000	4,18%	2014
Nepal	300,000	3,13%	2014

Sri Lanka	300,000	3,13%	2015
China	200,000	2,09%	2015
Jordan	200,000	2,09%	2015
Afghanistan	150,000	1,57%	Before 2011
Palestine	150,000	1,57%	2009
United Kingdom	120,000	1,25%	2015
South Africa	100,000	1,04%	2014
Lebanon	100,000	1,04%	2015
Ethiopia	90,000	0,94%	2014
Yemen	90,000	0,94%	2013
Indonesia	85,000	0,89%	2015
Sudan	75,000	0,78%	2013
Saudi Arabia	70,000	0,73%	2014
Somalia	70,000	0,73%	2015
Iraq	52,000	0,54%	2014
USA	50,000	0,52%	2015
Canada	40,000	0,42%	2014
Kenya	40,000	0,42%	2014
France	25,000	0,26%	2015
Australia	16,000	0,17%	2015
Germany	12,000	0,12%	2013
Spain	12,000	0,11%	2015
Algeria	10,000	0,10%	2014
Italy	10,000	0,10%	2014
South Korea	10,000	0,10%	2014
Thailand	10,000	0,10%	2014
Turkey	10,000	0,10%	2014
Azerbaijan	7,000	0,07%	2015
Ireland	7,000	0,07%	2015
Malaysia	6,000 – 7,000	0,06% – 0,07%	2015
Kazakhstan	5,000 – 6,000	0,05% – 0,06%	2015
Greece	5,000	0,05%	2015
Mauritania	5,000	0,05%	2015
Netherlands	5,000	0,05%	2015
Serbia	5,000	0,05%	2015
Ukraine	5,000	0,05%	2014
Sweden	4,000	0,04%	2015
Denmark	3,000 – 4,000	~0,03%	2015
Mexico	3,000 – 3,500	~0,03%	2014
Belgium	3,000	0,03%	2015
Eritrea	3,000	0,03%	2015
Japan	2,603	~0,03%	2015
Dominican Republic	2,000-3,000	0,02% – 0,03%	2015
Austria	2,500	~0,03%	2015

Belarus	2,500	~0,03%	2015
Hungary	2,500	~0,03%	2015
Switzerland	2,430	~0,03%	2013
Poland	2,348	~0,02%	2015
Singapore	>2,000	~0,02%	2015
BIH	1,000 – 2,000	0,01% – 0,02%	2015
Czech Republic	1,500	~0,02%	2015
Venezuela	1,200	~0,01%	2015
Norway	1,184	~0,01%	2015
Finland	1,180	~0,01%	2014
Cyprus	1,000	~0,01%	2014
Slovakia	1,000	~0,01%	2014
Senegal	700 – 800	< 0,01%	2015
Ghana	500	< 0,01%	2015
New Zealand	444	< 0,01%	2015
Taiwan	400	< 0,01%	2015
Latvia	300	< 0,01%	2014
Peru	300	< 0,01%	2015
Chile	270	< 0,01%	2014
Albania	200 – 300	< 0,01%	2015
Chad	200	< 0,01%	2015
Slovenia	100 – 150	< 0,01%	2015
Angola	100	< 0,01%	2015
TOTAL (countries on this list)	9,334,504 – 9,439,503		
TOTAL (official UAE 2010 census)	8,264,070		
TOTAL (2015 UN estimate)	9,577,000		

Source: Snoj, 2015

According to Snoj (2015), the UAE National Bureau of Statistics does not publish data regarding the percentage of immigrants in the country according to their nationality. The table above was created by obtaining information from the embassies of these countries in the UAE. However, the table provides an indication of the number of people of different nationalities living and working in the UAE. In 2015, 120,000 British and 50,000 Americans were reported as expatriates in UAE (Snoj, 2015). From 40 to 50% of the expatriates in UAE are females (National US – Arab Chamber of Commerce, 2007).

2.6.2 Expatriate Workers in KSA

In April 2013, estimates indicate that there were approximately 9 million foreign workers in KSA, consisting around 31% of total population (*Kapiszewski, 2006*). KSA has become highly dependent on expatriate workers, with a majority working in technical positions, and others in agriculture, cleaning and domestic service industries. The hierarchy of positions held by expatriates is significantly dependent on their nationality. The highest positions, those not held by Saudi nationals, are often held by expatriates from other Arab and Western countries. Expatriates from Africa, South Asia, and Southeast Asia are often employed within lower positions (*Bel-Air, 2014*). The table below shows Saudi Arabia's expatriate population according to country of origin.

Table 2.7: The Expatriate Population in KSA by Country of origin -2006

Country	Population in KSA
Indian	1,300,000
Pakistan	900,000
Egyptian	900,000
Yemeni	800,000
Bangladeshi	400,000 – 1,000,000
Filipino	500,000 - 800,000
Sri Lankan	350,000 – 850,000
Jordanian/Palestinian	260,000
Indonesian	250,000 – 500,000
Sudanese	250,000 – 900,000
Syrian	100,000
Turkish	80,000
Westerners	100,000 (2007)

Source: *Kapiszewski, 2006*

2.7 Summary

The discussion has highlighted how the attitude of men regarding female employment in KSA in particular is very traditional. Hence, women in effect face discrimination in the workplace. However, the Saudi government is attempting to improve opportunities for women to work and is making accommodations in support of the employment of

females. However, these efforts are unlikely to be sufficient to break down strong traditional beliefs that oppose female employment. In the UAE expatriate females are welcomed but local women still face barriers to work because of their family responsibilities and social attitudes. Of course, expatriate women also face problems because of pressures to manage a job in their host country while also maintaining a household in their home country. They also face pressures to send money home to their families and may feel lonely and isolated from their families. In general, working women in Arab countries, both home nationals and expatriates face many pressures and struggle to find balance between their personal and family lives and employment.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3: Structure of Tourism in KSA and UAE

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the position of females in the labour markets of KSA and UAE. In the next chapter, we consider theoretical arguments for the disadvantaged position of women in the labour market in general and try to apply these theories to build understanding about the particular position of women in KSA and UAE. This chapter focuses on the tourism sectors in KSA and UAE and the hotel sub-sectors in each country. The discussion of tourism is then widened to the Gulf States more generally and the Middle East region.

3.1 Tourism in KSA

The Arabian Peninsula (currently KSA) is the birthplace of the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) and the origin of Islam; therefore, the country holds immense importance for Muslims worldwide. The most commonly received tourism in KSA is religious tourism, which involves the Islamic religious pilgrimage to Mecca. During the month of Hajj, approximately six million people visit Mecca, two million during the Ramadan month and four million during the rest of the year. The authorities maintain a quota of visitors to ensure the number of people is manageable, and nonbelievers are not allowed within the holy cities of Mecca and Medina. Other travellers to KSA come primarily for business purposes, mainly to the capital Riyadh, and vacation tourism has been discouraged in the past. However, there are several tourist attractions in the country, such as ancient archaeological sites; the deserts, mountains and valleys; and the Red Sea beaches (Seddon and Khoja, 2003). Hence, the tourism industry in KSA is vital for its economy. Rather than placing restrictions on the number of visitors, the authorities could increase the workforce managing them, as tourists bring many benefits for the economy.

Apart from religious tourism (which is considerable since Muslims are expected to 'do pilgrimage') and for citizens of the GCC countries, tourism in KSA is limited, and visas are only issued if the applicant has a business in KSA, relatives who live in KSA, or if they need to transit to travel to another country. General tourism is not common in KSA. In addition, women visiting KSA are required to have a mahram (male guardian)

when applying for a visa, with proof of relationship, such as copies of marriage or birth certificates. Women above the age of 45 are permitted to travel without a mahram with an organised group, however, they are required to submit a letter of no objection from their husband, son or brother and authorising travel for Haj with the named group (Hannan, 2012). However, citizens of the GCC countries, i.e., Kuwait, UAE, Bahrain, Oman, and Qatar do not require visas to enter the country. KSA has gained a significant amount of wealth from its oil industry; however, in recent years, the country has experienced structural weaknesses and external influences that have created economic insecurity (Al Rajhi et al., 2012). Unemployment is increasing, growth rates are low, per capita income is decreasing and there are budget deficits. This has resulted in the country aiming to create a more balanced economy by reducing its dependence on the oil industry and promoting other industries, such as tourism and hospitality. (Al Othaimeen et al., 2007).

In 2011, the travel and tourism industry in KSA (detailed in Table 3.1) had a direct contribution to the GDP of SAR48.1bn, which is 2.3% of the total GDP. This is forecasted to increase by 4.2% per annum from 2012 to 2022 to SAR74.6bn in 2022. The total contribution of the industry to GDP was SAR116.2bn in 2011, 5.4% of the total GDP. This is forecasted to increase by 4.1% per annum from 2012 to 2022 and reach SAR180.2bn in 2022. These figures refer to the economic activity generated by sectors such as travel agents, hotels, airlines and other means of transportation (excluding commuter transportation). However, this also includes activities by other industries that are sustained by tourists, such as the restaurant and leisure industries (World Travel and Travel Council, 2012). These figures include travel to KSA for religious, as well as other purposes – business and leisure. This indicates the importance of the travel and tourism industry to KSA, and especially the implementation of government initiatives for the growth of the industry.

In 2011, the Saudi Arabian travel and tourism industry had a direct contribution of 2.4% to the total employment rate – 234,500 jobs. This is forecasted to increase by 2.9% per annum to 318,000 jobs in 2022, 2.4% of the total employment rate. The industry's total contribution to employment was 5.3% of total employment – 526,000 jobs. This is

projected to increase by 2.7% per annum to 706,000 jobs in 2022. In 2011, spending by visitors in the travel and tourism industry generated SAR37.4bn, 2.8% of total spending by visitors. It is estimated that this will rise by 2.6% per annum, to SAR46.3bn in 2022, 2.7% of total spending by visitors. Investment in the travel and tourism industry was SAR20.0bn in 2011, which is 4.8% of total investment. This is forecasted to grow by 3.3% per annum to SAR29.5bn in 2022, 4.5% of total investment (World Travel & Travel Council, 2012). The increase in focus on travel and tourism in the country means more employment opportunities.

Table 3.1: Saudi Arabian Travel and Tourism Industry

	2011	% of total contribution	Forecast from 2012 to 2022 (% per annum)	Forecast 2022
Direct contribution to GDP (SAR bn)	48.1	2.3	4.2	74.6
Total contribution to GDP (SAR bn)	116.2	5.4	4.1	180.2
Direct contribution to employment (jobs)	234,500	2.4	2.9	318,000
Total contribution to employment (jobs)	526,000	5.3	2.7	706,000
Spending by visitors (SAR bn)	37.4	2.8	2.6	46.3
Investment to the travel and tourism industry (SAR bn)	20.0	4.8	3.3	29.5

Source: Adapted from World Travel & Travel Council, 2012

The number of expatriate workers is increasing in the Saudi Arabian hospitality and tourism sector, notwithstanding the government's policy of Saudization, which aims to replace expatriates with local workers. This may be due to the level of competence required at top level positions within the tourism and hospitality, or it may be due to

cheap labour required from Asian countries. Within the tourism and hospitality industry, expatriate workers have been employed for jobs that are too poorly paid for the locals or for jobs that nationals would prefer not to engage in. It is generally believed that foreign workers are more willing to perform uncongenial and physically demanding tasks. Hotels in KSA have also relied on the expertise of expatriates for management and technical jobs; however, the government aims to transfer these jobs to nationals (Sadi and Henderson, 2005).

3.1.1 The Saudi Arabian Hotel Industry

The Saudi Arabian government has made plans to encourage domestic tourism. Saudi nationals mainly visit other countries within the Gulf and the Middle East, and spend large amounts of capital on holidays and leisure activities. In 2010, the Saudi tourism board planned and held 18 festivals for all age groups to encourage tourism. The festivals took place all around the country and included entertainment, sports and Saudi culture and heritage. Four new museums have been established in Bahah, Tabuk, Hail and Dammam, and 40 other private museums were established to display the country's heritage and antiquities (Saudi Arabia Tourism Report, 2009).

Although the government is now taking measures to encourage travel to KSA, the visa regulations are very strict and limited. In 2009, several international hotel chains opened their first hotels in KSA; these included Rotana, Hyatt Hotels and Resorts, Accor, and Raffles Hotels and Resorts. Other hotels already present in the country have expanded, such as the InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG), Al Hokair Group, Starwood Hotels and Resorts, Rezidor Hotel Group and Wyndham Hotel Group, all of which opened new hotels in 2010 (Saudi Arabia Tourism Report, 2009). This reveals that the hospitality industry in KSA is growing day by day, and the need for human resources is therefore increasing. As 42% of the population of KSA is female, there is the need to employ women in the hospitality industry in order to manage the number of visitors.

A regional comparison of KSA's hotel industry shows an average occupancy of 59.3% during the first eight months of 2011, the country's hospitality industry follows Qatar at

59.4% and UAE at 69.2%. The information also suggests KSA's Average Daily Rate (ADR) of USD 197.93 between January and September 2011 is relatively lower than the regional standard. The highest national ADR was in Riyadh, with an average rate of USD 266. This is an increase of 6% from the same period in the previous year, which is due to the increase in corporate tourism. A comparison between the ADRs of KSA and the Gulf States reveals that Riyadh had a higher ADR than Manama (Bahrain), Muscat (Oman) and Dubai (UAE) (Saudi Arabia Tourism Report, 2009). This presents a picture of the Saudi Arabian hotel industry in comparison to other Gulf States. There is a potential for growth in the industry and competitive pricing, in terms of ADR, results in a higher occupancy rate.



Figure 3.1: Map of KSA

The average hotel occupancy in Jeddah (shown on the map above) was higher than in all other Saudi cities. This was due to strong leisure tourism from January to September 2011, with average occupancy levels of 69.6%, an increase of 1.4% from the same period in 2010. Within the Gulf States, Dubai was the only city with a higher level of occupancy than Jeddah, with an occupancy rate of 73.2%. The second highest national occupancy was in Riyadh with 63%, followed by Makkah with 60.2%. Between January and September 2011, the overall ADR in KSA increased by 9% from the same period in 2010. The increase was experienced by most large cities within the country, with Riyadh and Jeddah experiencing moderate increase, and Makkah and Medina experiencing a substantial year-on-year increase. Al Khobar was the only exception to

this trend, with a decrease of 2.3% in ADR, which can be accounted for by the city's aggressive pricing strategies. Nevertheless, a large proportion of the national growth in occupancy rates can be attributed to Al Khobar as well as Makkah, and other smaller cities, such as Hail, Abbha, Jazan and Taif.

KSA's national Revenue per Available Room (RevPAR) rate increased by 19.1% from January to September 2011, compared to the same period in the previous year. This was mainly due to an increase in domestic and international demand. The highest RevPAR growth was in Al Khobar and Makkah, and the least growth was in Jeddah and Riyadh with 8.4% and 12.4% growth respectively (Saudi Arabia Tourism Report, 2009).

3.2 Tourism in the United Arab Emirates

Tourism in UAE is a major part of the income generation strategy for the government. Increased tourism is beneficial for the economy because it brings in foreign reserves. This has been recognised by the authorities and there have been improvements in relation to the holding of events and the development of infrastructure to support greater diversification in tourism in order to attract more tourists to the country (Al Deen et al., 2007).

UAE is considered an attractive destination for tourism for many reasons including religion, culture and history. Moreover, the geographical and the strategic location of UAE adds to its value as a tourist destination. UAE has had an established human settlement since ancient times, being culturally rich with wide diversity. UAE is also recognised as having some of the richest and most advanced and developed cities (Anwar and Sohail, 2004). UAE business, tourism, art and culture attract tourists from all over the world to visit a wide range of destinations.

Dubai in UAE is well known for its retail opportunities and people from all corners of the world travel to Dubai for this reason. Consequently, the hospitality industry of the UAE is thriving. Abu Dhabi also has an important economic position at an international level and since it is among the top ten oil producers in the world attracts significant

foreign visits for business reasons. Abu Dhabi has strategic importance since the total land area of Abu Dhabi is about 67,340 square kilometres, equivalent to 80% of the area of UAE and the population of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi (at the end of 2006) represented about one third of the total population of UAE (Henderson, 2006).

Tourism and business related activities in UAE and other Arab countries are contributing significantly to their GDPs particularly in the UAE (Emirates NBD, 2014). According to the UAE's Minister of Economy, tourism contributed approximately AED 134 billion (£36.4 billion) to the country's GDP in 2015, which is 8.7 percent. This is expected to increase by 4.4 percent in 2016 (Arabian Business, 2016). In 2014, the travel and tourism sector also generated more than 5,200 new jobs. According to the World Economic Forum, the industry contributed DH56.44 billion to the UAE economy in 2014 (Abbas, 2015). Overall, the sector has importance and maintains a reasonable flow of foreign currency into these countries. Hence, there is a significant potential role for women to be employed in the industry. For instance, more women from other Muslim countries may visit if there are more female staff and workers since they may not wish to interact with only male workers. Therefore, to attract this untapped market there is a need to employ women in tourism and hotels. This needs to be acknowledged by the authorities and basic employment rights for women provided to support female employment.

3.2.1 The Emirates Hotel Industry

The hotel industry in UAE is well developed and the industry is flourishing since hotels are part of the service industry that is complementary to developing business and tourism.

In the last few years, there has been a boom in the hotel industry in UAE; this comes after Dubai's biggest downturn in the economy, which was encouraged by over-development in property (Saeid et al., 2012). However, Dubai, a UAE state, will host the trade fair World Expo 2020, which is held every four years. This will bring foreign reserves into the country, helping strengthen the economy (Desai, 2013). That the world's top businesses utilise its hotel services strengthens the hotel industry in UAE.

The women, mainly expatriate, who are employed in the hotel industry are contributing to this boom in this industry. However, as in all other occupations, there is a need to employ more home national women (Daghfous and Barkhi, 2009) in order to build on the success of the hospitality industry.

3.3 The Gulf States and Middle East Tourism

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the Middle East comprises Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, KSA, Syria, UAE and Yemen (WTO, Madrid, 2005). However, the region of the Middle East is not a uniform entity, each country operating its own governments and legal systems. Therefore, there are variations in the stages of tourism development in each country. Although KSA has attracted the largest share of visitors within the region, this is primarily due to pilgrimage travel by Muslims. Another important country for tourism in the region is Egypt, due to its cultural heritage and the interest generated by its pyramids and mummies. However, recent terrorist events in the past decade have tarnished the country's reputation and stance on tourism (Henderson, 2006). The WTO is optimistic however and forecasts that tourism in the Middle East will increase by 7% annually until 2020 (WTO, Madrid, 2005).

Several Gulf States and the Middle East countries have experienced challenges in tourism development. For example, the political unrest on the streets of Manama city in Bahrain in 2011 had a detrimental impact on the country's economy. These events have resulted in a slowdown of the country's tourism industry. However, Dubai has been able to overcome many of these challenges and has established itself as a popular tourist destination. The country has succeeded in creating new opportunities and maximising its potential (Henderson, 2006).

3.4 Summary

This chapter sets the context for the field work by providing information on the tourism industry in KSA, UAE and the Gulf States and the Middle East more widely. The chapter identifies the major reasons for tourism in these states and highlights the periods of high demand in tourism. One major reason for foreigners to visit the Middle

East is the availability of oil and related corporate activities are providing a boost to the tourism economy. The hospitality industry has a particularly vital role in the economy of KSA because of the Hajj and KSA has limited the numbers of foreigners in the month of the Hajj to manage tourists more effectively.

In the context of these developments and given that women only make up 14.4% of the entire active workforce in Arab countries, women remain an untapped source of labour. Investing more time, energy and money in the development of the female workforce would help to meet increasing demand and support economic growth. Government, working alongside NGOs, non-profit organisations and the private sector can make changes in legislation to support an increase in the participation of women in the labour market. Existing labour rules should be upgraded to support females with strict checks and balances to make sure they are implemented properly to ensure that women in Arab countries have autonomy and are empowered. For example, there should be more work related training and fairer workplace environments. As most Arab countries, including UAE and KSA, are trying to establish knowledge-based systems and economies, there is a need to invest more time and resources in female education and training. Core skills should also be strengthened by updating the education system so that women as well as men are ready to fully engage in the digital and ever-changing market place.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4: Theory and Evidence of Female Disadvantage in Employment

4.0 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the tourism sector in KSA and UAE and more widely in the Middle East. This chapter reviews a range of theoretical perspectives on female employment, with a focus on theories that try to explain female disadvantage. The work of previous researchers is explored in order to build models and theories in relation to the rights and treatment of women in Arab countries. The chapter begins by looking at theories of gender discrimination in the workplace and then links the discussion in Chapters 2 and 3 with the discussion in this chapter by considering gender discrimination in tourism and Arab countries. This part of the chapter considers specific issues around discrimination and female disadvantage in tourism and in the Middle East. The discussion then considers how women's greater responsibility for caring for the family impacts on work and considers some policy implications in relation to flexible working. In summary, this chapter highlights existing theories and models regarding barriers to female employment and attempts to apply these theories in the context of the tourism sector and in KSA and UAE.

4.1 Discrimination Theories

Egalitarian principles maintain that social equality should be central to society. In certain societies, including a majority of developed countries, laws and regulations have been implemented that work to preserve some level of equality. However, women worldwide experience discrimination in several different forms particularly in the workforce. This can be associated with a negative perception of women's competence levels and suitability for specific work tasks, the risk or practicalities of pregnancy and the demands on working mothers, since women are regarded as the main carers for children in most countries. In addition, in some countries, including most Arab countries there are cultural and attitudinal limitations placed on women, such as the type of work regarded as acceptable or suitable for women. Women in general are paid lower salaries than men, and there is a perceived 'glass ceiling' faced by women. In this

context, the term 'glass ceiling' refers to the invisible barrier that prevents women from being promoted and developing their careers further.

According to workplace gender discrimination rational bias theory (Trentham and Larwood, 1998), employers may choose to discriminate against women if they believe individuals in higher positions expect or prefer it. In this context, discrimination against women can also be an inherent or taught behaviour, which is developed in childhood and over time (Saul, 2003). There may be emotional or practical issues related to the reasons for gender discrimination. For example, some individuals may discriminate against women mainly for practical reasons, such as because a woman may become pregnant, which would require a suitable maternity package and a replacement employee. In other situations, individuals may discriminate against women for emotional reasons or simply preference, such as the inability to accept a woman in a superior position within a workplace, and the perception that women's main role within society is to be a homemaker and carer of children. In line with this, Erik et al. (2006) conducted a study on gender discrimination in Sweden and discovered that women with small children experience higher levels of gender discrimination.

In Arab societies, educated working females may have a double identity – professional and private. As women's earnings are not considered the main source of financial income within the family, their efforts and work are often not acknowledged or appreciated (Kapiszewski, 2006). This is because, in Arab countries, women are mainly considered homemakers and carers of children, and men the breadwinners. This is argued to derive from the biological fact that only women can bear children, and historically men were the hunters and gatherers of food as they are generally physically stronger than women. As women bore children and stayed at home, they were the primary carers of children. However, hunting is no longer required to provide food and, therefore, over the centuries, women in many parts of the world have become active participants in the provision of food for the family. Nevertheless, although gender roles have changed, traditional perceptions regarding women's place persist in many cultures and countries, including most Arab countries.

Religion is another factor that causes discrimination against women in many forms. In several religions, for example Islam and Hinduism, women are expected to behave in certain ways and perform certain tasks and activities. A majority of these involve being a homemaker and carer of children. For example, in some Islamic countries, Islam is interpreted to dictate that it is unacceptable for women to interact with men outside their family and for women to perform some activities that men are allowed to participate in. However, Islam does not necessarily restrict women to their homes when they need to earn a livelihood for themselves and for their family. Therefore, the religion allows some discretion. Nevertheless, Islam is often interpreted as proscribing that females cannot work outside the home if there are male household members who are able to work since it is considered the responsibility of men to earn for women. Hence, religion can manifest as a hurdle for women in Muslim countries such as KSA who wish to work.

4.1.1 Employment Discrimination

Gender discrimination is evident in the labour markets of many countries and relates to hiring, wages and access to training and may be direct or indirect. Gender discrimination implies discriminating against an individual based on their gender. Gender discrimination in relation to employment may be based on traditional stereotypes of gender roles, and may involve the belief that an individual of a particular gender is superior to the other gender. Certain types of gender discrimination are illegal in some countries, while other countries allow gender discrimination as it is integral to their culture and/or religion (as discussed above). In such countries, and this includes many Arab countries (but is not restricted to Arab countries), share a cultural belief that men are superior to women, are socially more valued and are generally more capable of performing certain activities. However, even in such countries, including the Gulf countries, some women are able to hold top positions (in industry, the public sector and in politics). For example, Hayat Sindi and Princess Ameerah AlTaweel to name two prominent women leaders, but the number of women in leadership roles in such countries continues to be low relative to the number of men (Dipboye and Colella, 2013; Gregory, 2003; Bergmann, 1974)

Employment discrimination in hiring exists when women and minority workers, no matter how competitive and talented, are hired last and fired first. Such discrimination is evident in many countries, particularly in economic downturns, whenever there is a recession white males may be hired first, given maximum opportunities and fired last. This type of discrimination is very common in Arab countries, disadvantaging women.

Once women have a job, wage discrimination implies lower payment by employers to women or minority workers as compared to male or majority workers for doing the same amount of work in the same position. Here, the competence of women is measured and compared unfavourably against men. Such differences exist when a compensation package is determined by gender, ethnicity or characteristics that are gender or ethnicity specific, rather than competitiveness and productivity at work (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2016; Fayyaz, 2013). Direct wage discrimination exists when women working in the same position and at the same level as men are paid less. However, studies, such as that of (Niederle and Vesterlund, 2005), report experimental evidence that suggests that even when there are no gender differences in performance women may earn less because of gendered preferences for different types of compensation package.

Discrimination in access to human capital acquisition arises when women and minorities are given fewer opportunities to excel in training and achieve fewer rewards in the workplace or credits in school etc. As a result, women and minorities tend to be less educated and less well trained and settle for less competitive jobs, making it easier for a majority of men to excel and move up the career ladder (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2016; Fayyaz, 2013).

4.1.2 Occupational Segregation as Discrimination

This type of discrimination occurs when women are prohibited from entering certain jobs and positions in different organisations. This is very relevant to many Arab countries where women find it difficult to secure top-level positions and can only work in traditional roles, such as those found in the health and education sectors. As a result of such discrimination, no matter how competitive and qualified women are

they are still excluded in favour of less intelligent and less educated males, often having to settle for jobs for which they are over qualified for (Bergmann, 1974).

4.2 Tourism and Gender Discrimination

This thesis focuses on the tourism industry and specifically the hotel sector which is a large and rapidly expanding industry with average female participation worldwide constituting up to 55.5% of the global labour force in tourism (Baum, 2013). Women are working in a variety of roles and positions such as kitchen staff, customer care representatives, managers, cleaners and senior managers. However, there is still a gap when it comes to women in top-level positions such as technical, managerial, and recruitment and retention positions (Baum, 2013). In contrast, women comprise a large proportion of the client base in the hotel and tourism business as they increasingly travel.

Gender issues in the hospitality industry are well studied and extensive previous research is available (Blomme et al., 2010). There are income differences between males and females working in the tourism industry, women working in the same positions as male counterparts may earn less and be offered fewer opportunities to move up the career ladder to better positions. For instance, Powell (1990) finds a difference in effective strategy implementation in relation to the recruitment of male and female managers. (Powell, 1990), argues that men are preferred to women for better paying positions in the tourism sector.

The International Labour Office (ILO) has also highlighted the particular issues and challenges that women face when working in the hospitality sector:

“A divergence between qualifications and workplace reality is observable for women, who make up between 60 and 70% of the labour force. Unskilled or semi-skilled women tend to work in the most vulnerable jobs, where they are more likely to experience poor working conditions, inequality of opportunity and treatment, violence, exploitation, stress and sexual harassment.” (Baum, 2002)

This evidence is supported by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), which highlights a range of limitations and opportunities in employment faced by women working in the tourism industry. Specifically, in the hotel industry it appears that women are working for almost half the wage of men with longer working hours and in restricted workplace environments (Barnes and Fieldes, 2000). However, there are some areas in hospitality where women dominate, e.g. as tourist guides and tourism managers etc. These jobs are perhaps viewed as glamorous and females are may be more attracted to them than men and end up in better roles. Many Arab countries are also opening up towards the idea of hiring female workers in this industry, although women are still under-represented with a majority of male workers in higher positions and better paying jobs.

4.3 Explanations for Gender Inequality in the Tourism Industry

According to a survey conducted by the European Commission (2006), gender inequality in the hospitality sector is caused by a number of factors. In general, jobs that are dominated by women but require the same skills, qualifications and education as jobs dominated by men tend to pay less. For example, in hotels female attendants whose work is similar to mainly male kitchen porters, in terms of physical demands and work hours, are paid less. Moreover, when it comes to evaluation and career advancement in tourism, men seem to be favoured over women.

The challenges that women face while working in the tourism sector are linked to structural and organisational aspects. A constantly changing demand cycle means unsocial working hours for employees, both male and female, and unpredictable shift patterns, especially during holidays, both of which make it difficult for women to cope alongside family and other responsibilities. Moreover, high demand for seasonal workers can also damage women's access to such jobs as the availability of work varies considerably between holiday periods and off-season. In addition, working locations are often at a distance from residential areas, with implications for both time and travel costs for women who are often short of these two luxuries.

Table 4.1: Women in Hotels and Restaurants by Occupational Status and Region (2010)

Region	Professional %	Clerks %	Service Workers %
Asia	38.9	49.4	35.6
Latin America	36.6	62.7	65.5
Africa	34.9	56.6	34.8
Caribbean	N/A	67.3	42.9
Oceania	N/A	N/A	N/A
Average	36.8	59.0	44.7

Source: UN–Women/UNWTO: *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010* (New York/Madrid, 2011).

These factors all have an impact on the jobs that women are hired for in the hospitality sector. Table 4.1 shows the percentage of women working in hotels and restaurants in different regions of the world, these data are stratified by occupational status. The figures show that while women make up a large part of the tourism workforce they are more strongly represented in low-level clerical jobs and gendered service work such as chambermaids and waitresses; they are less well represented in top-level positions. Women it seems are underutilised and under-represented in the tourism industry and they are also potentially underpaid as they are earning 10 to 15% less than their male counterparts.

Some of these issues could be addressed if the government and sector leaders were to take appropriate measures to initiate and develop strategies to support women in employment. Specifically, by addressing segregation in occupations (whether vertical or horizontal) and allowing more flexible working hours and part-time employment.

4.4 Gender Discrimination in Employment in Arab Countries

In relation to female empowerment, which refers to providing women with facilities and giving them confidence in work with acknowledgement of their skills, there are some conflicting influences within Arab states that make gender equality more difficult. Some

of these conflicts are between state and family, religion and state, and lastly individual and institutions. When discussing such issues in the context of Arab countries, one question that arises is can religion be solely responsible for the oppression of women in countries like KSA? In such countries, it is often believed that Islamic law or Sharia is the main reason for the repression of women. For example, some blame the prejudice of religion for the restrictions imposed on Saudi women (Vidyasagar and Rea, 2004). However, lack of education and even awareness of fundamental rights point the finger at the state and institutions, which are equally responsible. Some of these allegations may be correct but there are Muslim states where the same Islamic law and Sharia prevails and women enjoy more freedom and authority (Engineer, 2008) Why are their women better educated and developed to deal with the issues of the outside world?

This reading shows that religion was in fact a liberating factor in the fight for the empowerment of women. Teachings of the Quran very explicitly promote the equality of men and women, so it is the job of states and institutions to ensure that women are not discriminated against.

One reason why women experience discrimination in Arab countries which has no specific link to religion is their 'objectification'. This means that an individual, usually a woman, is treated as an object. A person who is objectified is denied their right to activity. There are several ways in which a person may be objectified; for example, he/she may be treated as being owned by another person/people, her/his feelings and experiences are not taken into consideration (Fricker and Hornsby, 2000), (Saul, 2003). Particularly, in KSA, females are treated as objects; they are effectively owned by the male members of society and their decision making also belongs to the males. Arguably, men do not want to see women as powerful e.g. through an ability to earn their own living. Therefore, female employment is restricted.

4.5 Gender Roles in Arab Countries

Different countries hold different attitudes towards appropriate gender roles. For example, in the World Values Survey participants were asked if, in the case of a

shortage of jobs, should paid work be restricted to men only. In Iceland only 3.6% agreed; however, 94.9% of Egypt's population believed this should be the case. This suggests that the majority of people in at least one Arab country (Egypt) believe that women have less right to employment than men. In line with this evidence, men in Arab countries like KSA argue that they just want to protect their own mothers, daughters and wives but to do this they are willing to discriminate against other women who seek employment. Hence, the roles have been defined for men and women in KSA, which creates barriers for women working outside the home.

The issue of female employment issue in Islam is very important in the current era, as especially as Western countries are becoming increasingly engaging commerce with Muslim countries (Syed, 2007); this in turn is creating cultural and legal issues (Chalmers et al., 2005). In Western culture, women are working with men equally and contributing to the wellbeing and the economic wealth of their countries, but in Muslim countries the case is quite different and female workers are not privileged in these ways (Ottenberg et al., 2011). In fact, when women from Muslim countries try to leave the home and earn a living, they face much resistance, both from family members and society. These barriers also create hurdles to the success of a country's economy, as a major part of the population remains unutilised (Ghannam, 2011).

In Muslim countries, women and men's roles in the family follow strict religious teaching, which lays down how to raise children. The role of women is to stay at home and take care of the home and the children while it is the responsibility of the men to earn the livelihood for the family (Williams, 2011). So work out of the home is prescribed for the men and work inside the home for the women. However, it is becoming very difficult for one person's wage to fulfil the needs of a whole family. Therefore, women also need to work, not only to contribute to the family's earnings but also to improve the economic condition of the country (Murray, 2013).

All over the world, business markets cannot risk making mistakes in this competitive age; similarly, Muslim countries are also expected to meet development criteria (Chandra, 2012). To achieve this objective there should be equal opportunities for

employment for both genders. This issue should not require the involvement of the Supreme Court. It is also different from the current debate of whether faith-based organisations can enforce the rules of their faith in the workplace. However, there is a need to accommodate the Islamic concept of gender difference in the workplace. This means that the different genders need different types of facilities to be comfortable at work (Blackett, 2012). For instance, common offices for males and females may not be comfortable for both genders, so separate offices could provide an alternative, allowing people to work freely in a creative way. Arab women could probably convince their family members of the benefits of working in more effective manner if they could access separate facilities and working environments in accordance with the values of Islam. Muslim countries should pass laws that protect women from discrimination and inequality according to the real spirit of Islam (Shallal, 2013). When women get protection from higher authorities, this will result in progress for the economy and the country. These arguments also suggest a need for employers and governments to take the caring responsibilities of women into consideration (Baldwin-Edwards, 2011).

In Arabian societies like KSA, the dominant gender is male and men perceive women as emotional, disorganised, impractical and inflexible, unsuitable for senior positions in organisations. In line with this, Ghorbani and Tung (2007) found that the respondents in their study perceived women employees as quite inflexible. The respondents of their study appeared not to be satisfied with female workers and avoided employing them. This attitude is consistent with a male dominant society where female workers are not encouraged which ultimately creates a lack of confidence in women. This lack of confidence also affects potential female workers who are reluctant to go outside the home to seek work. But it is also the responsibility of the male members of society to care about female workers, and have confidence in female employees. Women form half of the population and so without their help and support it will be difficult for the labour force to perform all the necessary tasks to boost the economy and the country's reputation.

In KSA the Saudi government has adopted several legislative steps at the national level to promote female employment. The Saudi labour code gives all citizens, men

and women, the right to engage in employment, and specifies that all employers must provide training opportunities for all employees (Achoui, 2009). In 2004, the Council of Ministers agreed to Regulation No. (120) (12/4/1425H), which is a measure that aims to promote Saudi women's involvement in the economy. The regulation outlines the call to establish special women's sections within the government, and employment and training initiatives for women. It also includes the provision to establish cross-sector coordination mechanisms, and eliminates the requirement for women to have a male guardian for employment purposes (Baki, 2004). In 2006, the Saudi Arabian labour code was reviewed to include improvements for working women regarding maternity and medical care leave, nursery provision, annual leave and pensions (The Eighth Five-Year Development Plan, 2005-2009).

The Saudi government additionally plans to construct a women-only industrial centre, which will provide a working environment for female workers that aligns with the country's cultural values. The centre will be built in the Eastern Province city of Hofuf. There are several other women-only centres planned in other Gulf States. The plans aim to create an environment that enables women to engage in employment and achieve independence, and maintain the cultural norm of gender segregation. The government is considering four similar industrial centres for women-only in Riyadh, which will enable women to have a more important role in the country's development. The Saudi Industrial Property Authority (Modon) is responsible for building the centre at Hofuf, which is expected to create approximately 5,000 jobs in the pharmaceutical, textile and food-processing sectors. The centre is strategically placed at a location within close proximity to residential neighbourhoods, which will enable women to commute to and from work (Davies, 2012).

A study conducted by Al-Ahmadi (2011) examines women leaders in KSA. It reveals that despite government efforts to integrate women into the workforce and provide better working conditions, women are still facing challenges in the workplace due to structural and cultural factors. These factors obstruct their effectiveness as leaders, which, according to (Almenkash et al., 2007), is also the case in other Gulf countries. The main challenges for women in leadership positions are limited opportunities in

higher education; discrimination within appointments and promotion; attitudes of male leaders towards working women; male-dominated workplaces; male resistance to women in workplaces, especially in leadership positions; lack of professional networks; lack of training and development programmes; lack of quality day-care centres; their dual responsibilities of traditional and professional roles; and the related need to create a balance between traditional roles as a wife and mother and professional roles (Al-Lamki, 1999; Al-Ahmadi, 2011). Although many Arab women receive domestic help, either from employing paid servants or relatives, the most important responsibilities of Arab women are perceived to be housework and childcare (Omair, 2008). Flexible working arrangements will not address all of the educational and employment issues faced by Saudi women; however, given the importance of their domestic and family responsibilities, it may be possible to assist women into employment given issues with lack of quality day-care centres and the importance attached to their traditional responsibilities. Flexible working could help in increasing a balance between personal and professional lives.

There are many barriers in the working environment for female workers, such as discrimination by male employees and the dependence of female workers on male workers regarding appropriate fields of works etc. These barriers need to be resolved to provide women with equal opportunities.

4.6 Caring Responsibilities, Work-Family Conflicts and Workplace Flexibility

Informal caring responsibilities involve providing help and support for children or sick, disabled or elderly adults. This type of care is provided by ordinary people, often women for little or no financial reward. However, employers of a company also have responsibilities of care for their employees and the government has ultimate responsibility for providing caregivers in work with the facilities they need to support them to stay in work and also manage their caring responsibilities.

Workplace flexibility is widely recognised and utilised by policy makers globally to assist employees in maintaining work-life balance, and reducing work-life conflict. Work-life conflict is defined as conflict due to incompatibility between work, personal

life and family life. It is caused by the link that relates work and personal life to each other and the results of the activities performed in both situations. It embodies the conflict between work and life and reflects the level of perceived incompatibility between an individual's work and life roles. Incompatibility is perceived when an individual feels that participation in one aspect, work or life roles, has become difficult due to demands of the other role.

Workplace flexibility, defined as "the ability of workers to make choices influencing when, where, and for how long they engage in work-related tasks" (Jeffrey Hill et al., 2008), may result in lower perceived work-life conflict as the demands of each role can be better managed. For example, working from home may reduce time spent in commuting, and therefore increase time resources. It may also become easier to manage life roles due to face-to-face availability. Schedule flexibility may also enable more effective utilisation of time resource between work and life roles. In the field work, this study aims to explore perceptions of workplace flexibility in the context of Arab culture.

Several studies have explored the work-life conflict concept and how work hours are related to greater work-family conflict and flexible working is related to less work-family conflict (Jacob et al., 2008). A study carried out in the UK by (Hughes and Parkes, 2007), revealed that paid work hours are a significant factor contributing to work-family conflict, but this factor is lessened by schedule flexibility. (Judge et al., 1994), found a positive relationship between the number of paid work hours and work-family conflict, particularly for employees with children in preschool. (Shockley and Allen, 2007), found a relationship between work hours and family life interference. Jacob et al. (2008) found that when the employee missed family mealtimes, work hours were related to work-family conflict.

In a study carried out by Bryon (2005), it was found that workplace flexibility is related to reduced work-family conflict. Relatedly, (Gajendran and Harrison, 2007) discovered that 'telecommuting' is related to less work-family conflict. However, (Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran, 2006) found no correlation between the availability of workplace

flexibility and work-family conflict. However, it is important to differentiate between the availability of workplace flexibility and the use of these arrangements. Although several studies discuss how workplace flexibility reduces work-family conflict, some raise the question of whether it is important for the employees to be actually utilising the arrangement for it to have an effect, or whether merely the availability of such an arrangement is sufficient. In a study conducted by (Jones et al., 2008) in Singapore, it was concluded that employees do not have to be utilising workplace flexibility in order to perceive reduced work-family conflict. The knowledge that flexible working arrangements are available when required is sufficient to achieve positive outcomes.

Erikson (2010) argues that workplace flexibility is beneficial to both employees and businesses throughout the world. Erikson reports that workplace flexibility can reduce perceived work-family conflict, and therefore facilitates employees to work longer hours without work-family conflict. Although working at home reduces work-family conflict, the arrangement operates at its best when it permits schedule flexibility to reflect the most suitable working hours to manage work and family responsibilities. Schedule flexibility appears to be the most effective and valued type of workplace flexibility for employees. Another factor is that the importance of these arrangements varies over different parts of the world and there are cultural differences in the adaptation of flexible working arrangements and its advantages. Erikson's (2010) study revealed that the lowest level of use of working at home arrangements was among employees from Asia. This may be due to cultural norms that it is not acceptable for employees to remain at home to work.

Perceived schedule flexibility and working at home are especially advantageous to parents with small children. This may be because it increases the parents' ability to manage childcare during unforeseen situations. This would reduce work-life conflict and increase parents' psychological wellbeing. Schedule flexibility also benefits employees with responsibilities for caring for adolescents and/or adults. Workplace flexibility enables the employee to schedule their work activities and caring responsibilities in the most appropriate and convenient manner. Therefore, workplace

flexibility may increase the employees' level of job satisfaction by reducing perceived work-family conflict, which in turn is likely to benefit employers.

4.7 Flexible Working

A flexible working environment can play an important role in empowering female workers as a flexible environment can enable women to work more freely and in their own time, which ultimately should improve job satisfaction and performance which should also benefit employing organisations and companies.

There is a commonly held idea that the term 'flexible working' relates only to part-time employment, and that flexible working refers to additional, part-time jobs that people take on after they have completed their main job as a way to earn some extra money (Puybaraud et al., 2011). However, this view is out dated and in many cases, it is simply wrong. This confusion largely stems from job advertisements that offer full-time or part-time options, so people consider the part-time job as 'flexible working'. However, in the current era there is a huge variety and innovation in working flexibly (Joyce et al., 2010). Now, when people talk about flexible working it can be in relation to a full-time job opportunity that may include flexible hours, remote working, job sharing or shift work. For example, Western Europe has offered 129 million flexible jobs, but in Muslim countries, there is little scope for flexible working. Women in these countries often live at a distance from places of employment, making it difficult for them combine paid work with taking care of their home and family (Al-Khateeb, 1987). However, if they were provided with flexible working conditions, they could be encouraged into work leading to greater financial security for themselves and their families (Kelliher and Anderson, 2008). Flexible working may also include the facility for working from home. This facility could be attractive to women in Arab countries as they could still work to earn for themselves, despite not being allowed to go outside the home. One survey concluded that women who work while availing themselves of flexible working opportunities feel much more comfortable and happy than those who cannot (Kattenbach et al., 2010). Possibly this is because flexible working can help to create a better work-life balance allowing women to take responsibility both inside and outside the home.

In some majority Muslim countries, for example, in Pakistan, women are being helped in work through access to flexible working conditions. Furthermore, economic and political conditions encourage women to work and earn a livelihood (Malik et al., 2011). For example, the substantial quota for women in Pakistan's parliament and sub-national assemblies promotes women's rights and creates opportunities for women to work alongside men at the highest level (Ansari, 2011). Similar measures should be introduced in Arab countries to give women visible rights which would also serve to better society and grow the economy. Moreover, in order to accommodate women's caring responsibilities in the family and society, flexible working environments could be implemented, including part-time jobs and the option of work from home. This would help in the development of women's careers and increase opportunities for women to work (Boserup et al., 2007). Flexibility in work can also improve the functioning of labour markets countries have to bear losses. For instance, the Iranian labour market is very inflexible and this has had negative impacts on real wages and the unemployment rate (Nobakht, 2006).

Another perspective, put forward by (Bryman, 2012), is that despite the increasing number of female role models working in top positions, this have limited influence on women in general. This may be partly explained by stereotypical, male-oriented social norms in countries like KSA, where career advancement relies on existing male norms and no support facilities are provided for female workers. These norms are based on beliefs that men are better managers and women cannot cope with pressure or resolve problems. Consequently, gender-based discrimination remains in these societies.

Schein (2001) argues that male behaviour has not changed in the 30 years since she conducted her original research. The results of her earliest study and her current research are the same due, she argues that the unjust logic of men leads them not to consider women equal to them. This is the prevailing view in KSA. However, in the context of the assumption that women have sole responsibility for the home, it is the responsibility of employers and the government to provide women with flexible working facilities so that they can also contribute towards the economy and for the betterment of their homes and families; when women are able to find work they are able to live

more independently. Of all the different ways of working flexibly, the ability to work from home would be the least challenging to the norms of Saudi Arabian society given that women are commonly prevented from working outside the home. Other flexible working facilities, such as part-time or flexible working hours could also encourage female employees to work and men could also find such options attractive encouraging greater flexibility within Saudi families.

4.8 Summary

This chapter began by outlining some of the perspectives of feminist theories including liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, racial and socialist feminism. The arguments of radical and socialist feminism appear very relevant to Arab societies particularly in KSA where there are restrictions preventing females from taking up work outside the home. Radical feminist theories highlight biological differences and the objectification of women which seem particular relevant in KSA where females are treated as sex objects or possessions; all decisions regarding women are made by male guardians and in a sense they own them. Unsurprisingly, men in KSA do not want to give up these powers over women hence female rights and their employment continue to be restricted. This chapter also outlines discrimination theories and specifically employment discrimination, direct discrimination and occupational segregation. In effect, women are subjected to employment discrimination in KSA. For example, many employers may not even consider female employees when drawing up job descriptions and discriminate directly by giving preference to male employees.

The chapter continued by drawing together the discussions in Chapters 2 and 3 with the analysis in this chapter by considering gender and discrimination in the context of tourism in general and in the Middle East. The context of tourism and hotels is relevant since in Arab countries there tends to be a negative perception of women working in hotels because women working in hotels often need to interact with men. Lastly the discussion turned to caring responsibilities and considered flexible working practices as a way of helping women to secure employment. Many working women have caring responsibilities and they find it is difficult to maintain a balance between their work and

home life. Flexible working could enable working women to better manage their homes and jobs.

To summarise the main arguments of this chapter it seems that although women are proving to be equally competent as men in all fields of employment, discrimination against women in the workplace still exists. Employment discrimination against women result in women receiving lower salaries in comparison to men in the same job and performing the same activities, women being asked to perform activities that are beneath their professional role, preference being given to men in the recruitment and selection process, etc. (Neumark and Stock, 2006), (Saul, 2003). While gender discrimination in the workplace exists in most countries, women in Arab face particular problems that make it more difficult for them to seek and retain employment.

The study now turns to examine the particular case of women working in hotels in KSA and UAE. The next chapter outlines the research methodology and the following three chapters present the research findings.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5: Research Design, Methodology and Field Work

5.0 Introduction

The previous chapters discussed previous research and the institutional, sector and country context for the research. Theoretical arguments, including feminist perspectives on gender discrimination and the disadvantaged position of women in the labour market in general were also discussed in order to build understanding of the position of women in KSA and UAE and Arab countries more widely. This chapter outlines the methodology of the primary research conducted for this study. The methodology was designed to examine the employment experiences of females in the UAE and KSA. The research aims to identify and characterise the barriers and enablers of female employment in the hotel sector in UAE and KSA and considers how the employment experience of women differs depending on their circumstances including the country in which they are working, their nationality and their caring responsibilities. Policy implications are also considered, in particular whether and how flexible working can support women who want to work.

The chapter begins with a reflective summary of the research process. The next four sections outline the research approach, the integrated research design, the research methods and the sampling strategy. Section 6 describes the pilot study, section 7 outlines the development of the research tools and section 8 describes how the field work was conducted, the challenges presented and the difficulties faced. Section 9 outlines the methods used to analyse the data and Section 10 discusses ethical issues. Section 11 summarises.

5.1 A Reflective Account of the Research Process

I began this thesis with the view that flexible working should be implemented as a way of assisting all employees but females in particular in Arab countries to assist in maintaining a balance between work and family lives I had therefore originally planned to include both men and women within the sample of people I would recruit for the primary research. However, I subsequently decided that the study should focus on women only as they are the main caregivers and homemakers in Arab countries.

Previous research also highlights how different industries/sectors operate in different ways and therefore the effectiveness of flexible working arrangement in a particular industry/sector does not necessarily imply that it would be feasible and successful in other industries/sectors. I therefore decided to focus on the hotel sub-sector within the broader hospitality sector as this would provide a narrower research focus. The hospitality sector itself is of particular interest in the context of country specific gender studies as female employees constitute a significant proportion of the workforce worldwide.

I had initially thought that flexible working would be able to alleviate many of the employment related problems experienced by employees, particularly those with caring responsibilities for adults and children. Flexible work practices would therefore be of particular benefit to working women in Arab countries, especially Arab national women since women in Arab countries traditionally have responsibility for family caring. However, the first step in the process of finding a solution to the problems faced by women in work is to identify the specific nature of these problems and then consider whether flexible working practices are relevant. Therefore, my review of previous research focused on an examination of the problems experienced by female workers in general and female workers in hotels and in Arab countries in particular. This review of previous research lead me to understand that the employment related difficulties experienced by women are complex and dynamic. The difficulties women face are linked to a range of individual, family, social and employment related issues, including whether the woman has caring responsibilities, the working environment, social culture, and reasons for job (dis)satisfaction. As the research unfolded and I gained more in-depth knowledge on the subject, I realised that there are many inter-related issues that needed to be examined.

Because of these layers of complexity, I came to understand that flexible working can only ever be a part of the solution to these concerns. Therefore, I decided that a mixed methods approach including a survey using questionnaires (quantitative research) and in-depth interviews (qualitative research) would be appropriate for this study. I believe it was important for me to use this mix of research approaches as this gave me more varied and more comprehensive data to analyse and interpret. An advantage of using

questionnaires is that they allowed data collection on a relatively large scale in a comparatively limited time. Nevertheless, while in-depth interviews can take more time to complete, they provided an opportunity to explore the research issues in more detail and result in rich qualitative information.

I therefore started the research process by developing a questionnaire and interview schedule for a pilot study. I tested the questionnaire and schedule with friends, colleagues and academics. After several drafts, I constructed a questionnaire and schedule for the pilot study. I felt that it was important to conduct a pilot study to assist in determining the feasibility and design of the questionnaire. I needed to make sure I would not be wasting my and the participants' time by conducting research that was not feasible or effective in providing valuable information. As my research topic involves Arabs working in hotels, I had decided I will conduct my large-scale research in hotels in UAE and KSA. However, it was not practical for me to travel to UAE or KSA to conduct the pilot study. Therefore, I decided to carry out the pilot study with hotel employees in the UK. I asked several hotels in Birmingham (UK) whether I could conduct the pilot study with their employees. Two hotels agreed and I was able to complete the pilot study with employees from these hotels. Since at the time I was still focusing on men and women, I distributed the questionnaire to 10 males and 10 female employees from each hotel. I carried out two interviews in each hotel.

The pilot study revealed several issues with the questionnaire and interview questions. In addition, I realised that the work involved in doing field research and the time and effort required was considerable. I was able to identify effective ways to approach hotels to attain permission for research, and also how to approach the employees. I also learned how to ask questions in the interviews and how to probe further to attain valuable information. I learned that it was important for me to remain neutral and objective while asking the questions and to ensure I did not convey any of my own personal feelings, views, and opinions on the subject. I also realised that certain topics and questions elicited particularly strong feelings and reactions from the interview participants for example questions about hours of work and pay. I did not to conduct the questionnaires on an individual face-to-face basis as it was my aim to conduct the pilot research in as much similar as possible a way as I intended to conduct the full

survey. Although the pilot study involved only 20 questionnaires in each hotel, the full-scale research would involve many more participants and therefore, it would not be possible for me to carry out the questionnaires on a face-to-face basis. From the pilot study I was able to identify important differences between the types of information that I would be able to retrieve from the quantitative and qualitative parts of research and how, in particular, the interviews could be used to expand on and enrich the data collected through the questionnaires.

After finalising the questionnaire again, I travelled to UAE to conduct the full-scale research. Initially, I had planned to conduct the questionnaire and individual interviews with mainly Arab national women, and women with caring responsibilities in particular. However, I soon realised that it was very difficult for me to find Arab national working women in hotels in UAE, and it was also difficult to recruit women who have caring responsibilities more generally. Therefore, I decided to loosen the criteria for recruitment in order to conduct recruit a sufficient number of working women in hotels. After conducting fieldwork in UAE, I travelled to KSA to carry out the second part of the research. I encountered further challenges in KSA and had to adapt accordingly.

The methods applied to analyse the data I collected was very different for the two parts of the research. For the quantitative research, I used the SPSS software to conduct the analysis using graphical and statistical techniques. This analysis was useful in revealing patterns of responses to questions, and among particular demographic groups, e.g. nationality, age groups and by marital status. For analysing the qualitative data, I used the NVivo software. This analysis resulted in more narrative discussion focusing on common ideas, themes, opinions and experiences.

5.2 Research Approach

Applied research usually takes either a deductive or an inductive approach. The deductive reasoning method begins with a general concept and ends with a specific concept: Theory→Hypothesis→Observation→Confirmation. The deductive approach may begin with a theory or research issue, which leads to certain hypotheses that are then tested. The tests carried out may be referred to as observations. The results obtained from the observations lead to negative or positive confirmation of the theory.

Inductive reasoning takes the opposite approach to the deductive reasoning approach. It begins from certain observations and ends with theories: Observations →Pattern→Tentative Hypothesis →Theory. Inductive reasoning starts from the specific observation and then moves towards broader generalization and theories. Specifically, in the inductive approach, the researchers usually begin with observation of patterns and regularities and then formulate tentative hypothesis based on the certain kinds of relationships which may be tested. In the final stage theories or the models based on the expected relationships are developed (Robson, 2002).

In this study I am using both approaches and mixed research methods. Theories of female employment and cultural context were used as a starting point and the research considers whether these theories are applicable in KSA and UAE and whether they need to be adapted. A concern with using mixed methods is that results may be incommensurable i.e. lacking a common basis on which to make a comparative judgement (Mingers and Brocklesby, 1997). This means that researchers need to keep a careful eye on the linkages between the different methods employed and theoretical framework. Nevertheless, the use of mixed methods is becoming more common in social sciences, particularly when the research design is that of a case study. Mixed methods are supported by Ormerod (1995, 1998, 1999) who has conducted numerous mixed method projects taking a pragmatic approach to research. Ormerod (1999, p.7) argues that mixed methods may be selected for a variety of 'pragmatic' reasons, for example to confirm and compare results, or to gain a new perspective or view.

5.3 Research Design

This section summarises the framework for the research, the process followed and the type of data gathered. Two integrated designs were used to address the research objectives and questions: case study and cross-sectional design. The integrated research design was constructed to provide new insights into the topic (Robson, 2002), (Trochim and Donnelly, 2001).

5.3.1 Case Study Research

This research involves a case study of female employment in the hotel sector of two neighbouring Arab countries. A case study involves an empirical investigation of a particular subject/topic issue within its real life context. This approach is most often utilised in explanatory and exploratory research and a combination of data collection methods is often used to study the research topic (Robson, 2002). For example, case studies often incorporate historical, primary and secondary documentation as resources, and can also include direct and logical interviewing. One purpose of a case study is to obtain access to an exact case or a reconstruction of a case (Flick, 2009), focusing on specific research questions. Similarly, (Denscombe, 2000), states that a case study approach is able to concentrate on relations and processes, entire points of view and uses various sources of data collecting methods. Case studies are common in management and organisational studies and tend to concentrate on both “how and why” questions. In the context of a case study these questions generally relate to events which occur during a particular period of time, rather than a phenomenon which occurs repeatedly. Denscombe (2000) argues that if there is a high probability of focus on present-day events, a case study is appropriate. In a similar vein, (Yin, 2003), suggests that a case study is an empirical inquiry which “investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context: when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used”. Taken together these features of case study design suggest that it is useful in allowing the researcher to capture the holistic characteristics of real-life events.

The data gathered from case study research is usually mixed, often more qualitative than quantitative. The findings can be based on opinions and views, and analysis may take a narrative approach (Hakim, 2000). However, quantitative data may also be collected or accessed e.g. through the use of closed question questionnaires or by accessing secondary data. Often the quantitative data is used to provide context while the qualitative aspect of a case study aims to gain a deeper understanding of the relevant human behaviour and the rationale underlying that behaviour, for example by exploring motives behind decision-making in a particular context. A limitation of

qualitative data is that it is specific to the sample used, and does not represent or make conclusions about a large population. Instead, the research aims to gain insight about the case and the research topic more generally from access to selected individuals e.g. through individual interviews (Davies and Hughes, 2014).

For this research, I conducted a case study of the hotel sector in the comparative framework of two countries. The data collection methods utilised within this study were a survey questionnaire and semi instructed interviews. The research aimed to establish the similarities and differences in the experience of employment for working women in these two countries. The research was designed to explore the challenges and difficulties female employees within the hotel sector are facing and aimed to determine whether flexible working arrangement may assist working females to create a balance between their work and family lives. The two country comparison was particularly relevant in the latter context since flexible working arrangements have been implemented to some degree in the UAE. The advantage of the case study research design was that it was able to provide a focus for the research and a comparative basis for analysis. The countries involved in this research, the UAE and KSA, both have similar cultural norms and employment practices, particularly in relation to the employment of women.

The limitations of undertaking a case study of one sector (i.e. the hotel sector) within the hospitality industry are that there is potential for inconsistent results. The validity and reliability of the research method can be difficult to determine since the same kind of research conducted at a different time and in a different place may yield different results. According to (Flyvbjerg, 2006), there are some common weaknesses of case study research including that it may not provide a basis for a contribution and that the results can be biased and difficult to develop and generalise into propositions and theories. Flyvbjerg (2006) argues that these limitations provide a cautionary context for researchers. Nevertheless, I believe that in-depth, expert knowledge gained from close examination of a subject can provide valuable information.

5.3.2 Cross-sectional Research

This research also involved cross-sectional collection of data from a subset of the population of female employees in UAE and KSA hotels at one time that may allow some tentative conclusions to be drawn regarding the whole population. More generally, cross-sectional research often incorporates a quantitative element in relation to the systematic investigation of the aspects of a research topic. The research sample is often large, and the research aims to derive conclusions about a particular population. Data is usually collected through surveys, investigations or experiments (Davies and Hughes, 2014). The cross-sectional method of research does not involve a pre-test, post-test or treatment, as data is collected at one time only.

The current study included a questionnaire survey that was conducted with female employees of participating organisations within the wider hotel sector. I had originally aimed to collect 200 completed questionnaires from each of the two countries and in the fieldwork I visited numerous hotels personally and distributed the questionnaires to the employees in those hotels that agreed to participate. Female employees at the participating hotels were asked to complete the questionnaire only once, there was no follow up. The participants for the interviews were recruited from the sub-sample of women who completed the questionnaire. At the end of the questionnaire, the survey participants were asked to indicate whether they would be willing to participate in an interview. Originally, I had planned to select interviewees to reflect roughly equal proportions in relation marital status and whether or not they had caring responsibilities for children and/or adults. However, due to the low number of women indicating that they would like to participate in the interviews, I had to compromise in terms of these demographic requirements i.e. whether they were married or single, had caring responsibilities or not. Ultimately, all the survey participants who indicated that they were willing to be interviewed were invited to participate in this part of the research.

There are several limitations of cross-sectional research design. To make generalised and valid conclusions regarding a population, the representative sample should be of significance in relation to the population and the sample size should be large enough to enable sufficient accuracy in the data obtained. Conclusions made from the data

gathered may also be biased if all relevant variables are not considered or measured. In this study I was able to collect a range of data for 385 female employees in KSA and UAE. While this is not a sufficient number to enable generalisation to the whole population of female employees in these two countries, the data were collected, as discussed, within the context of a case study and need to be evaluated as such.

A further limitation of the cross-section design is that causal relationships are difficult to determine since the data is collected only once and no variables are changed. It is also difficult to determine whether the same research would yield different results if conducted at a different time. For example, given that scope for flexible working arrangements had only recently been initiated in UAE, future research would benefit from a follow up study to examine whether there had been changes regarding participants' perspectives regarding the policy.

5.4 Research Methods

I used quantitative and qualitative methods. (Davies and Hughes, 2014). argues that the most appropriate research method to be applied within a study depends on the nature and interest of the study. The quantitative research approach is relatively inflexible. For example, in a closed question survey questionnaire, the research participants are required to respond to specific enquiries that do not allow for in-depth responses. Nevertheless, this approach enables the research to be conducted with a large research sample in a relatively short time period, as minimal contact and/or communication is required between the researcher and the participants (Marsden and Wright, 2010). Qualitative approaches, such as semi instructed interviews, are more flexible as they allow research participants to provide in-depth responses, express their feelings and emotions. However, while qualitative research has the ability to yield rich data, the sample size is usually small as conducting qualitative research is very time-consuming (Desai, 2002). While, quantitative research results in numerical data, qualitative research yields descriptive information which can be more complicated to analyse since it requires analysis of individual research participants' responses (Polit and Beck, 2013).

This study utilises a combination of quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The quantitative research, the survey questionnaire, provides broad insights into the research participants' demographic characteristics, the nature of their employment, their caring responsibilities, their work experience including their satisfaction with their working environment and their perspectives on flexible working arrangements. The qualitative component provided more in-depth data on the perspectives of a smaller sub-sample of working women.

Some scholars argue that it is important for a researcher have complete participation in the research setting in order to gain an understanding and knowledge of the research subjects while others argue that maintaining a distance from the research subjects and setting is important to gain an objective view (Bryman, 2012), (Robson, 2002). In this research, I fully participated in the research setting. I visited all the hotels, was directly involved with the recruitment of the participants and conducted all the interviews. The research topic of female employment is a sensitive issue in the UAE and KSA and not just for women. I therefore considered it to be very important for the researcher to be present at the research setting in order to avoid any misunderstanding and/or reluctance towards participation in the research.

5.5 Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy for this study was purposive rather than probabilistic. As explained by (Saunders et al., 2004) different sampling techniques provide different way of enabling data collection. Purposive sampling means that participants in a survey are selected in a non-random way. This means that some members of the research population have no chance of being selected to participate in the research, or it is not possible to accurately determine the probability of research subject selection. Purposive sampling involves the selection of research subjects on the basis of assumptions regarding the research population. These assumptions become the criteria for research subject selection. As the research subjects are selected on a non-random basis, it is not possible to estimate sampling errors. Purposive sampling methods include convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Chaudhuri and Stenger, 2005). Research subjects are usually

chosen on the basis of specific characteristics when the research requires an exploration of specific perspectives, certain people, groups or information (Guijt and Woodhill, 2002).

My research adopted a non-random sampling method in relation to the choice of case studies and the sample for the cross-sectional analysis. This was because I wished to target the hospitality sector and a particular sub-sample of employees, namely women working in hotels. However, a limitation of this strategy is that only some of the hotels approached agreed to take part in the research and within these hotels only a sub-sample of female employees volunteered to participate in the study. This is likely to have generated some sample selection bias in the findings as the research only accessed people and hotels who were willing to participate. For example, sample selection may have led to either positive or negative self-bias in reporting if the participants systematically perceived themselves or their situation in a negative or positive light. In the specific context of this research, the participants who volunteered may have systematically reflected a negative or positive perspective of women's position in the hotel sector and more generally. However, the recruitment strategy presented a very neutral view of the research and women's work in hotels. This was actually necessary in order to enable the participation of the hotel management. Therefore, there was no particular reason for women who held either a negative or a positive perspective or their position to be recruited. In addition, all completed questionnaires and interview transcripts were included in the study. These reported both positive and negative perspectives on female employment in hotels and more generally within the two Arab countries. Nevertheless, the possibility of sample selection bias is an acknowledged and common limitation of this research as it is in most relatively small sample research of this kind.

5.5.1 Generalisation and Triangulation

Triangulation is an analytical approach utilised by researchers to check and establish the validity of their qualitative research. It is operationalised by analysing the research question from several different perspectives to determine whether there is consistency across data sources and approaches. Depending on the situation and research

dynamics, any inconsistencies may require further examination of the data and findings. However, in certain situations, these inconsistencies are viewed as an opportunity to reach deeper meanings from the information (Creswell, 2013).

Generalisation refers to the reasoning process that involves reaching general interpretations from specific observations. It is often a claim made in relation quantitative research and can be used a quality standard measure. In order to generalise from the results of a study it would be desirable to use the entire population of interest to conduct research, however, this is rarely possible due to time, budget and feasibility, especially when the research involves a large segment of the population. Therefore, a representative proportion of the sample population may be accessed to carry out the research. The aim is to attain a representative sample that is as close to the sample population as possible (Creswell, 2013).

This research aimed to gather data from women working in hotels, therefore, its analysis and conclusions are unlikely to apply to women working in other sectors in KSA and UAE. Also, there are many women working in the hotel sector in KSA and UAE who were either not accessed, asked to participate or chose not to participate in the study. Therefore, this study involves research with only an invited sub-sample of the population of working women in the hotel sector and may not be representative. However, I have tried to enhance the generalisability of the findings from the study by accessing a large number of hotels in different cities in the two countries and through triangulation. As noted above, triangulation involves implementing several different approaches to the research to ensure the final conclusions are valid. Within this study, the triangulation arises through the mixed-method approach that I adopted. I used two main methods of research to gather information: a survey questionnaire that collected quantitative data, and interviews that produced in-depth, qualitative data. In the extensive fieldwork I conducted by myself in KSA and UAE over several months there is also an element of the research that is indicative of participant observation. This form of triangulation has enabled the study to provide a greater range of data and information than a mono-method based study. The combination of methods used allowed some verification and validation through cross-analysis across the two sets of findings in order to establish when the same and/or similar results were reached.

5.6 Pilot Study

As mentioned in the reflective account, the research incorporated a pilot study. This was a preliminary small-scale study, carried out to determine the time, cost, feasibility, adverse events and statistical variability of a full-scale research study. It assisted in establishing an appropriate sample size and improving the research design.

Pilot studies are thought to be particularly important and useful in interview and survey questionnaire design and can also be conducted before large-scale quantitative research, to ensure time and money is not wasted on an ineffectively designed research study. The pilot study is conducted with a sample of the research population; however, this sample does not participate in the final research as the pilot may influence their responses. A pilot allows the researchers the opportunity to alter and adjust the research method so that better results and outcomes can be achieved. For a pilot to yield valuable information, it is important that the research participants in a pilot study are relevant to the research interest population. Other factors, such as the research environment, day of the week and time of the day the research is conducted, may also be important in some cases.

The pilot study for this research project was conducted in September 2012 for two weeks, at two Hotels in Birmingham, hotel L and the E hotel (names withheld for ethical reasons). The study consisted of survey questionnaires and individual interviews with employees of the hotels. The survey questionnaire was distributed to 20 employees from each hotel, 10 males and 10 females. At the time of the pilot study, the thesis aimed to focus on both men and women; however, it was later decided that the study would focus on women only. A 100% response rate was achieved as all questionnaires were completed. Two interviews took place in L hotel and two in the E Hotel. All of the interviews took place at the interviewees' place of work, were recorded and later transcribed. Each interview took approximately between 15 to 20 minutes to conduct. I had prepared a set of questions in relation to the research topic; however, certain questions were added at the time of interview to obtain further and more in-depth information. The intention was to create an informal and more conversational interview

environment to help to generate valuable data. The flexible and conversational nature of the interview proved to be effective, as I was able to communicate better with the interviewees and obtain more useful information.

The pilot study revealed several issues with the survey questionnaire and the interview questions, which were subsequently addressed in order to improve the research. Certain questions were reworded, omitted or added, and the questions' sequence had to be rearranged. Since the pilot study was carried out in the UK, and the full-scale research was to be carried out in the UAE and KSA, it was difficult for me to ensure the same or a similar research environment. However, many of the practicalities of the research process were maintained. For example, I distributed the survey questionnaires myself and waited (in the lobby) as the respondents completed the questionnaire. The respondents were then also invited to participate in semi structured interviews. The interviews were carried out at the participants' place of work and at a time convenient for them. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed. The pilot study questionnaires and transcripts from the semi instructed interviews were both analysed to determine the effectiveness of research tools e.g. whether the questions posed yielded valuable information for analysis. One main difference between the pilot research sample and the full-scale research sample was the difference between the working practices and wider working and social environment in the UK compared with the UAE and KSA. However, I was aware of this difference from the start of the pilot study and therefore focussed on the effectiveness of the research tools and my own skills as a researcher in terms of yielding valuable results rather than the quality of the actual data obtained.

5.7 Research Questionnaire and Interview Questions

Two research project tools were employed, a questionnaire survey and semi instructed interviews. The research questions were developed from the literature reviews conducted and were also informed by my own experience as a Saudi female. My own experience means that I am familiar with Arab culture and the attitudes and norms within Arab culture in relation to working females.

Questionnaire Development

After I had completed the pilot study, I received feedback from the hotel employees regarding the questionnaires. I was able to identify several changes that could be made to the questionnaire to make it clearer and easier for the survey respondents to understand. The questionnaire was made shorter; as the most common feedback I received was that the questionnaire was too long and too time-consuming. Also, I had attended a two-day workshop on questionnaire design and this was very helpful in understanding how to improve the questionnaire.

I translated the questionnaire into Arabic and to make sure that the English and Arabic versions were a good match, I sent them to two colleagues: one a PhD researcher in linguistics; the other had a Masters in linguistics. In addition, I sent them to an academic doctor specialising in translation, just to make sure they were sufficiently clear for the participants. After I finalised questionnaires for the actual data collection, I sent them to another three colleagues to ensure they were clearly written and to measure the time it would take to complete them. Finally, one of my colleagues helped me to send my questionnaires to academics in Universities in Jordan and KSA to give me their feedback in order to increase the validity and reliability of questionnaire. I worked on questionnaires for around six months, producing more than ten drafts and the main stage was finally conducted from July to September 2013.

The questionnaire structure

The questions posed within the questionnaire and interviews aimed to explore the hotel employees' nature of work, their caring responsibilities and whether flexible working may or could be beneficial to them. The survey questionnaire (written in Arabic and English) consisted of 29 questions, with five sub-sections: (1) background information, (2) social questions, (3) working practices, (4) satisfaction with work and (5) caring responsibilities.

In sub-section (1) of the questionnaire the questions aimed to gather information regarding the participants' age, marital status and number of children. Sub-section (2)

focused on reasons for attaining employment, the level of difficulty experienced to attain employment and whether any particular people or personal problems/issues made it difficult to find employment. Other aspects explored in this section were the level of satisfaction with the decision to attain employment and whether employment had caused any problems/issues within the respondent's wider non-working life. Sub-section (3) looked at the nature and experience of work and perspectives on flexible working practices: hotel department, tenure, type of employment contract (e.g. permanent, temporary contract), hours of work (e.g. full time, part time), specific job characteristics and views on flexible working. Sub-section (4) asked about 'job satisfaction' by presenting 24 statements relating to satisfaction with work, and the survey respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with these statements. Table 5.1 summarises the scales and sources for the statements on job satisfaction. The original form of the scales and the modifications are detailed in appendices 1 and 2. Sub-section (5) asked about the survey participants' 'caring responsibilities' including the number, ages of and relationship with adults and children they cared for; the number of hours spent on caring responsibilities; and whether their caring responsibilities had an impact on their employment.

The interview schedule asked about parallel topics: motivation for work, barriers and enablers to employment, job satisfaction, caring responsibilities, work-life balance and flexible working practices. However, the questions asked in the interview were open and allowed probing. The table below (table 5.1) illustrates the sources which I used to develop the job satisfaction scales in the questionnaire. Developing questions to collect data regarding the employees' job satisfaction was a challenging task, as it was important to determine which factors among many possibilities influenced job satisfaction (both positively and negatively). A decision was made to analyse job satisfaction using questions that had been tested in previous studies which had focused on job satisfaction. From these, the number of different questions and scales considered the most appropriate for the purposes of this study were selected (as summarised in Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Sources for the Job Satisfaction Scales in the Questionnaire

Scale						
Supervision	Co-workers	Training	Job security	Pay	Loyalty	Nature of work
(Oshagbemi, 2013)	(Clark et al., 2008)	(Back et al., 2010)	(Oshagbemi, 2013)	(Fullerton, 2005)	(Fullerton, 2005)	(Fullerton, 2005)
	(Fullerton, 2005)			(Oshagbemi, 2013)	(Back et al., 2010)	
	(Oshagbemi, 2013)					

5.8 Conducting the Field Work

The fieldwork was conducted in 2013. A total of 385 questionnaires were completed by female employees. I approached 75 hotels in four cities in KSA and three cities in the UAE. The hotels I approached were mainly from large, well known international hotel chains (for ethical reasons the names of the hotels are not included). Only a few were neither large nor international (n=7). In all sixty-six hotels agreed to participate: 39 in KSA (Jeddah, Riyadh, Khobar and Dammam) and 27 in the UAE (Dubai, Abu Dhabi and Sharjja). In both countries, the in-depth interviews (n=45) were completed at the hotel. They were conducted with a sub-sample of females who volunteered in response to a question included in the questionnaire.

In KSA, a majority of the participants were Saudi Arabian, a small minority were from other Arab countries, including Syria, Jordan and Lebanon. Other participants included international, expatriate workers, for example from the Philippines. The women were working in several fields and departments, including: operations, reservations, administration, secretarial, management, sales and marketing. However, as the Tourism Commission of KSA has not authorised women to work at the hotel reception none were employed in this area. This lack of authorisation is presumably due to the need for a high level of interaction with male guests at reception.

A majority of the participants in the UAE were from the Philippines, and the rest were from the UAE and other Arab countries, including Syria, Egypt and Jordan. Women working in the hotel sector in the UAE are able to work within all departments and fields of the hotel, including reception, housekeeping and in restaurants. On the whole, it was fairly straightforward to obtain permission from hotel managers to conduct research within UAE. However, some hotel managers took several days to give their approval; some refused because they believed the questions to be too sensitive (e.g. in relation to pay) and some managers were concerned about maintaining the privacy and confidentiality of information within their hotels.

5.8.1 Challenges and Limitations

I experienced several challenges in both countries while conducting the field research. First, it was sometimes difficult to obtain consent from hotel managers to allow their female employees to participate in the research. Some hotel managers agreed to be involved in the research but the questionnaires were not completed in the agreed time and, in some cases, I had to revisit the hotel three times to obtain the completed questionnaires. This was very time-consuming and, in some cases, involved me waiting for several hours to speak to a manager and/or relevant individual within the hotel. Some managers agreed to participate but asked me to delete the job satisfaction questions in the questionnaires before they would allow their employees to participate in the research. Attaining permission to conduct individual interviews was particularly problematic. Consequently, there was sometimes insufficient time allowed by the managers for me to conduct individual interviews. In these cases, I decided to conduct group interviews instead. This proved to be convenient and it seemed easier to obtain consent from individuals to participate in a group interview rather than an individual interview.

Even when a hotel manager did respond positively to my research, it was in fact difficult to recruit women who were employed in the hotel sector in these two countries, particularly in KSA. On several occasions, the hotel manager agreed to participate in the survey but either the hotel did not employ many women or women who were

employed did not want to complete the questionnaire. Difficulties recruiting women for the research presented another challenge for me personally as this made the research process expensive, as I had to travel to several cities, incurring travelling and accommodation costs.

One specific problem that arose was that one of the interviewees did not allow me to record the interview. This may have been due to reservations about confidentiality. Although I explained to the interviewee that all information provided in the interview would only be utilised for the purposes of the study, the individual remained reluctant. I was able to take notes during the interview but this did present some issues. For example, this interview was more time-consuming in comparison to the recorded interviews.

The research focus on flexible working also presented problems. Flexible working had only recently been introduced in the UAE and therefore, there was very little knowledge or understanding of the initiative. Insufficient time had passed for employees to have experienced or be aware of, or understand the possible benefits or disadvantages of flexible working. In KSA, there are no initiatives on flexible working and most participants had no or very limited understanding of flexible working practices. The questions included in the survey questionnaire may therefore have presented difficulties for the participants, more so perhaps in KSA. An advantage of the face-to-face interviews was that the researcher was able to explain what was implied by flexible work practices.

A final issue was that I had also originally intended to conduct interviews with female students of tourism and hospitality within the two countries in order to find out how these women viewed their prospects for a career within the sector. However, due to a lack of response from school managers suggesting a lack of interest or reluctance to participate in the research, I had to omit this part of the research.

5.9 Data Analysis

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest there are three stages in research analysis: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. Data reduction involves organising and reducing the research data into more relevant information. Data display refers to the presentation of the data in a clear and organised manner. The conclusion drawing and verification stage involves interpretation of the research findings. In this study, once I had collected the primary data, I aimed to analyse it following these three stages.

The data from the survey questionnaire were entered into and subsequently analysed using the SPSS statistical software package. In SPSS I conducted and I coded the data as variable and constructed new variables. I then conducted frequency analysis and cross-tabulations and constructed graphs in an initial summary analysis of the data which is presented in the next chapter (Chapter 6). I then analysed the data in more detail, applying statistical tests and regression analysis to explore relationships between different sub-samples (e.g. by country, nationality, women with/without caring responsibilities) within the main sample and variables constructed to capture different aspects of the employment experience of the sampled women. The results of this analysis are presented in chapter 7.

The transcripts from the semi-structured interviews were analysed with the help of the NVivo software. NVivo is designed to enable researchers to analyse and organise non-numerical and/or unstructured data. I first entered the data into NVivo software and then proceeded to use the coding system to categorise themes. I then explored whether there were any relationships between the themes I had identified and the characteristics of the women interviewed. The findings from this part of the research are presented in chapter 8.

5.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was obtained from the University of Birmingham, the UAE Embassy in the UK and the KSA Embassy in the UK. Both the UAE and KSA Embassies in London approved my questionnaires and my interview questions and gave their

consent for me to conduct the research in the UAE and KSA. In addition, the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities gave me permission to carry out my fieldwork and to access the hotels more easily (certificates of permissions and consent forms have been included as appendices 4 and 5). The hotel managers also gave me verbal permission to access their hotels and meet with their female employees in UAE and KSA.

There were several ethical issues that required consideration in carrying out this research:

1. Accurate referencing of secondary sources: A list of references is included at the end of this study, using the Harvard referencing system.
2. Consent from the research participants: Consent was obtained from all individuals involved in the research.
3. Information about the research: The survey questionnaire and information sheet for the semi-structured interviews included a statement that contained the University name, the researcher's name, explained the research purposes and process, and how the information obtained will be stored and utilised.
4. Anonymity: The research participants were informed that it would not be necessary for them to reveal their names or any other personal information, and that the information obtained would be used in strict confidence and for the purposes of the study only. The respondent's name was not recorded on the questionnaire or asked for in the semi instructed interviews. Where names are reported these are pseudo-names.

5.11 Summary

The study aims to explore the experience of work for women employed in hotels in UAE and KSA and the nature of the barriers and enablers to employment they face. This chapter outlined the research methodology used in the study. The various steps and stages involved in the design of the research and the challenges faced in conducting the fieldwork were outlined. The next two chapters describe the sample and the questionnaire data in more detail and present the results of the analysis of the

questionnaire responses. Chapter 8 presents the findings of the analysis of the transcripts of the semi-structured interviews. Throughout, there is a common focus on motivation to work, enablers and barriers to employment, the balance or lack of it between employment and caring responsibilities, work experiences and satisfaction and perspectives on flexible working. Each chapter also provides a level of comparative analysis by country, nationality and caring status. Chapter 9 draws the findings from these three chapters together and discusses implications for policy and future research.

Chapter 6

Chapter 6: Sample Characteristics: Descriptive Analysis

6.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an initial descriptive summary analysis of the responses of the 385 women who participated in the survey carried out in the UAE and KSA hotels. 45 of these women subsequently also participated in face to face, semi structured interviews. This chapter focuses on a selection of indicative responses to the questionnaire. The data are illustrated graphically with a brief analysis of each graph and where there are country level differences, these are highlighted. The following chapter provides a more in-depth, statistical analysis of these data. Chapter 8 provides an analysis of the data from the qualitative interviews.

The questionnaire covered the following topics and this summary analysis of the responses is structured accordingly:

Questionnaire Topics

1. Demographics: country, nationality, age, marital status
2. Children and Caring responsibilities
3. Job type and salary
4. Motivation for work
5. Barriers to work
6. The overall experience of work: Satisfaction with work
7. Policy considerations: Perspectives on flexible working

6.1 The Sample: Demographic Characteristics

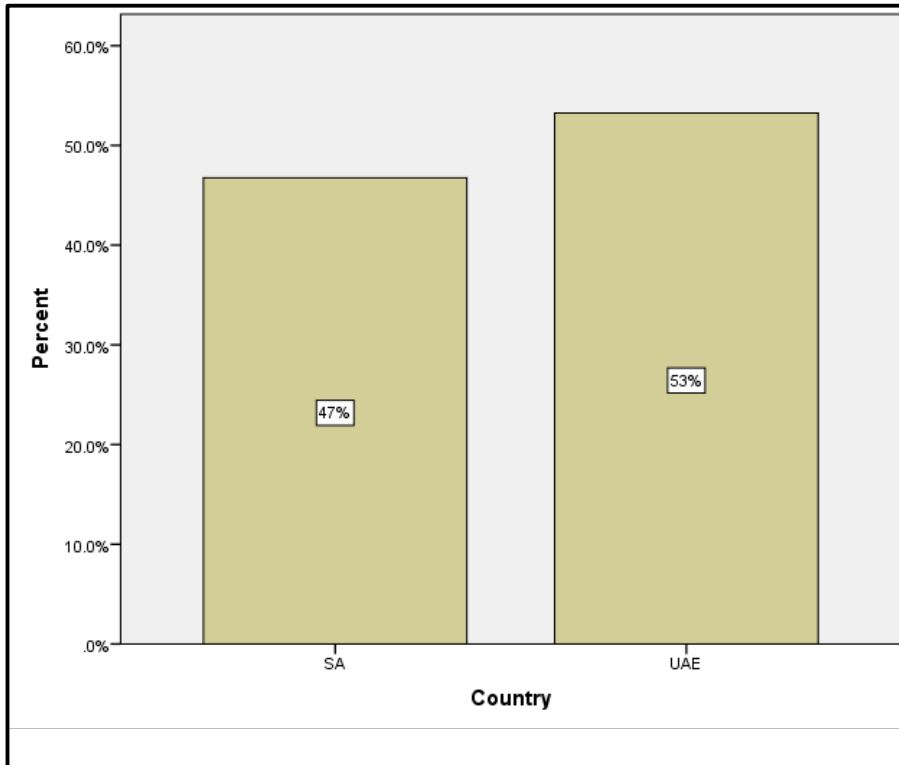


Figure 6.1: Country of Residence

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of questions to determine the respondents' demographic characteristics. As shown in Figure 6.1 above, the majority of the survey participants are from UAE (53%). This means that there were approximately 6% more participants in the UAE. The researcher aimed to achieve an even distribution of survey participants in both case study countries, and, while there is a difference, a 6% difference is not considered significantly large and should not detrimentally weaken any conclusions derived from a comparative analysis of the two sub-samples in the two countries.

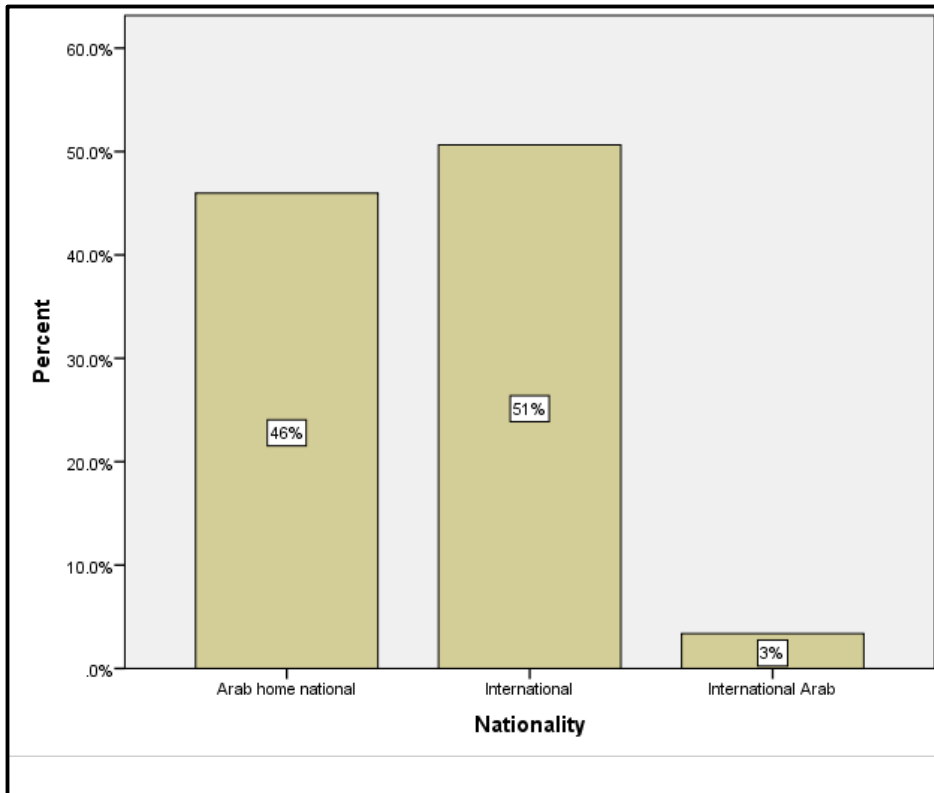


Figure 6.2: Nationality

The survey included a question to determine the nationality of the respondents. This question assisted in determining the percentage of national and international (expatriate) women working in hotels in UAE and KSA. The responses to this question were subsequently used with responses to other questions to identify differences and similarities between the responses of national and international (expatriate) women. The 'Arab home national' category refers to respondents who hold nationality of the UAE or the KSA and were working in the same country. 'International' refers to respondents who hold nationality of countries other than the country they are working in including other Arab countries (i.e. in the Arab cluster). The researcher also identified the category 'International Arabs' who are respondents from other Arab countries that the country in which they are working, either the UAE or KSA. 51%, a majority of the survey participants are from non-Arab countries. 46% are Arab nationals from the country in which they are working and 3% are Arabs from a different country to the one they are working in - International (expatriate) Arabs.

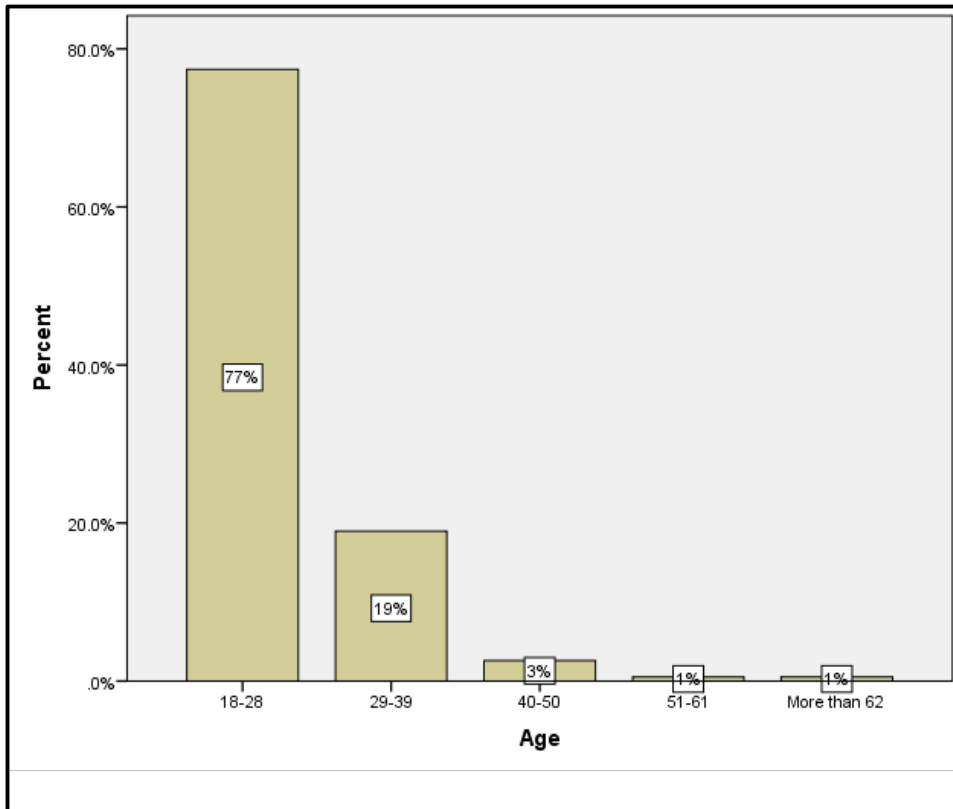


Figure 6.3: Age Group

Figure 6.3 illustrates the age distribution of the survey participants. The questionnaire recorded five age ranges: 18 – 28, 29 – 39, 40 – 50, 51 – 60 and older than 61. A majority of the survey participants, 77%, are between 18 and 28 years old. 19% are in the 29 to 39 age range, 3% are between 40 and 50 years old, 1% are between 51 and 60 and 4% are older than 61 years old. The women sampled were therefore relatively young.

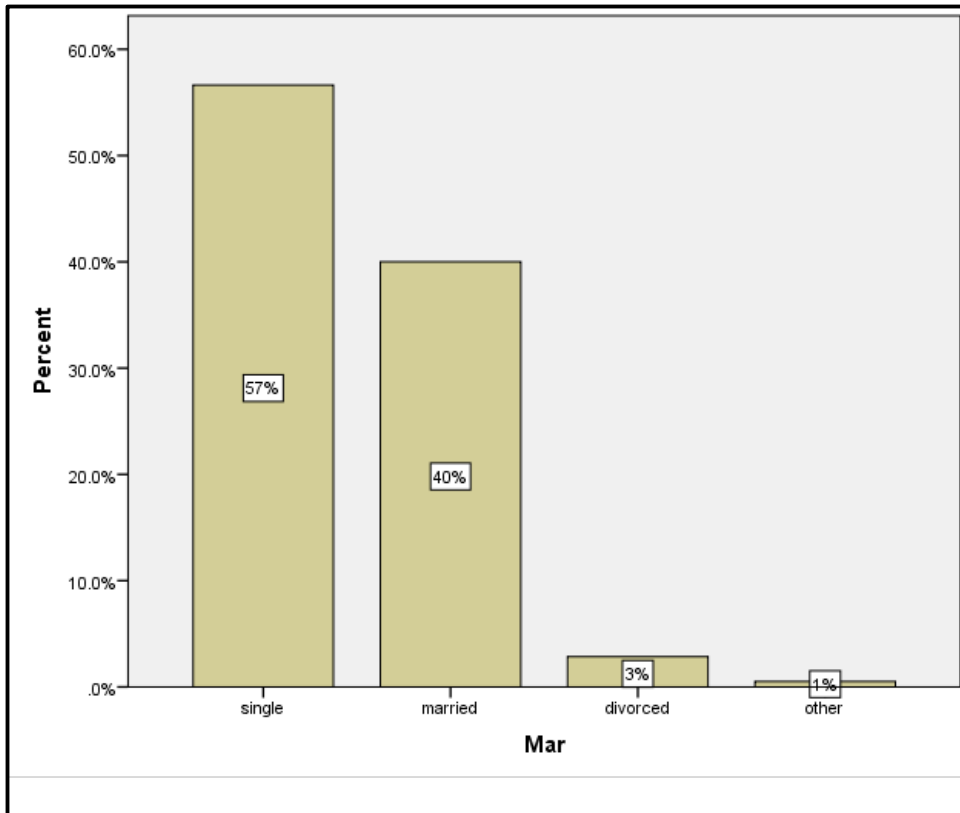


Figure 6.4: Marital Status

Figure 6.4 shows the survey participants' marital status. The graph shows that a majority of survey participants, 57%, are single; 40% are married; 3% are divorced; and 1% did not classify their marital status. The data on marital status was subsequently used to explore whether marital status (as an indicator of family context) was linked to whether or not the women had caring responsibilities, barriers and enablers to employment, and perceptions on flexible working.

6.2 Children and Caring Responsibilities

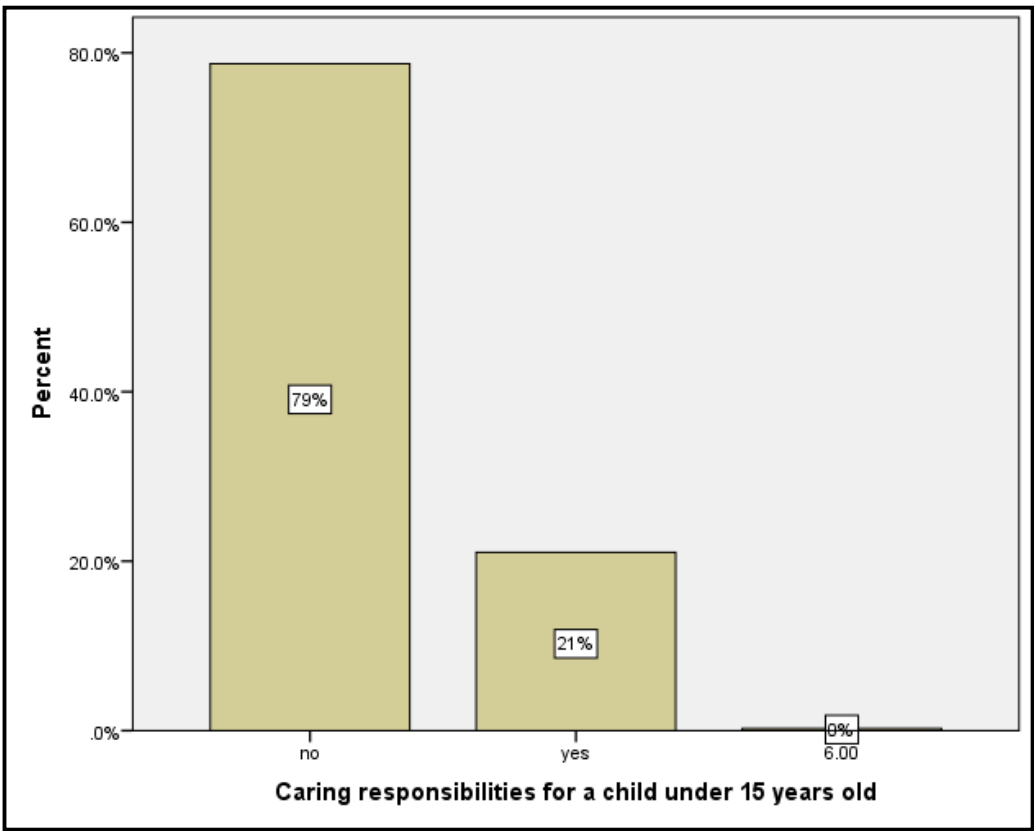


Figure 6.5: Caring Responsibilities for Children under 15 Years Old

As shown in figure 6.5 a large minority, 21%, of the survey participants said they had caring responsibilities for children under 15 years old.

6.3 Job Characteristics of the Sample

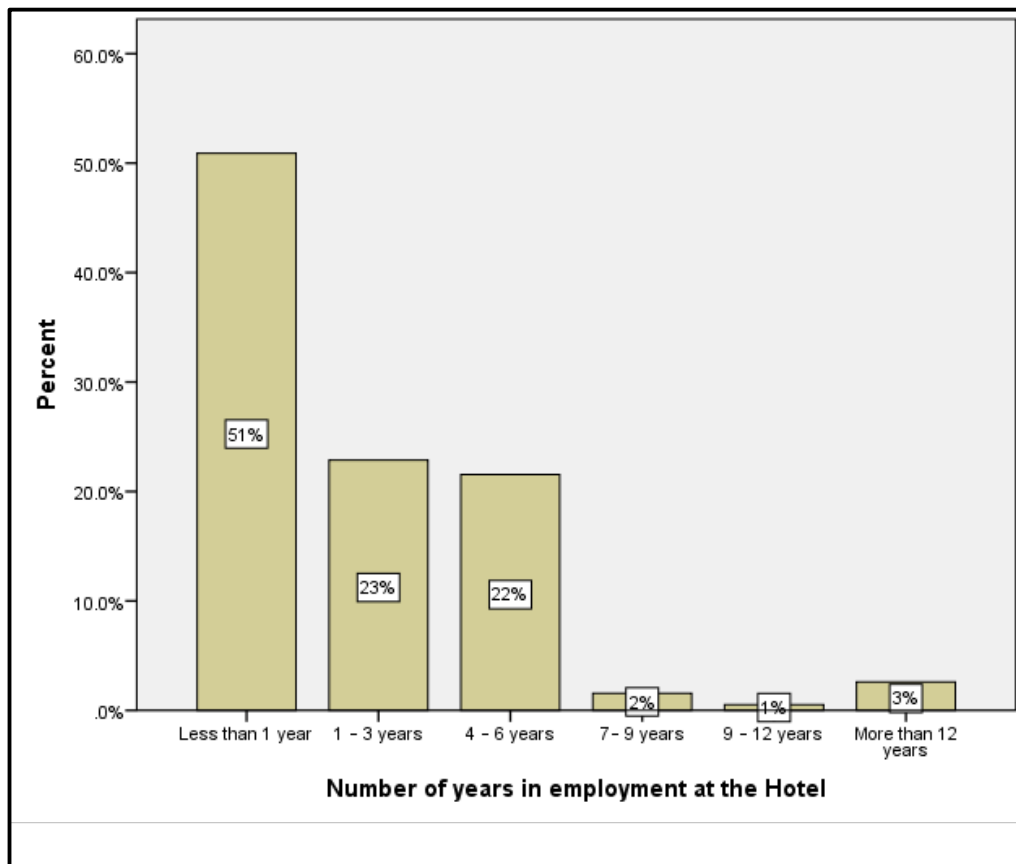


Figure 6.6: Number of Years in Employment at the Hotel

The survey participants were asked to indicate the number of years they had been working for the hotel. This was asked in order to obtain a measure of tenure which is potentially linked to employee retention and job satisfaction. Figure 6.6 shows that approximately half of the survey respondents, 51%, have been working at the hotel for less than 1 year; 23% have been employed by the hotel for 1 – 3 years; 22% for 4 – 6 years; 2% for 7 – 9 years; 1% for 9 – 12 years; and 3% for more than 12 years. The large proportion of the employees who had been working at a particular hotel for less than 1 year indicates that the level of employee retention at the sampled hotels was relatively low.

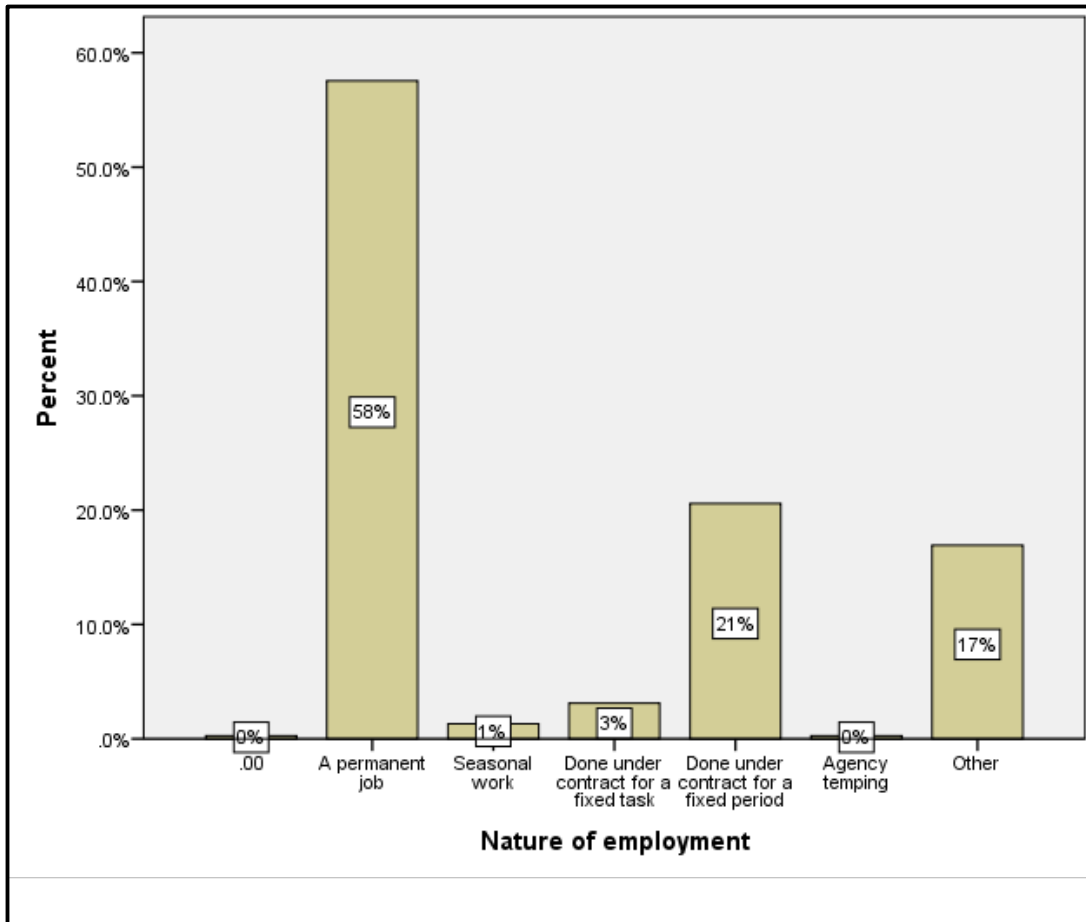


Figure 6.7: Nature of Employment

Figure 6.7 illustrates the nature of employment contract' for the survey participants. The categories included were: permanent job, contract for a fixed period, agency temping and an option to indicate 'other' if none of these categories applied to the respondent. The survey revealed that a majority of the hotel employees were employed on a permanent job, 58% of the survey participants. 21% of the survey participants were employed on a contract for a fixed period, 3% indicated a contract for a fixed task 1% indicated seasonal work and 17% indicated 'other', None of the respondents were employed as agency staff. These figures indicate that within the sample and possibly more widely in the UAE and KSA, the most common form of employment contract is a permanent job.



Figure 6.8: Department of Employment

Figure 6.8 provides information on the department in which the survey participants were employed. The categories include: reception, housekeeping, restaurant, marketing and sales, human resources and an option to indicate 'other' if none of these applied. 21% worked in the hotel restaurant(s), 18% in housekeeping, 17% in reception, 12% in marketing and sales, and 9% in human resources. The largest group of survey participants, 24%, recorded 'other' departments of the hotel. The 'other' category may include jobs such as administration, operations, logistics, interior design, etc. These categories were subsequently used to explore whether job type was linked to job satisfaction (Chapter 7).

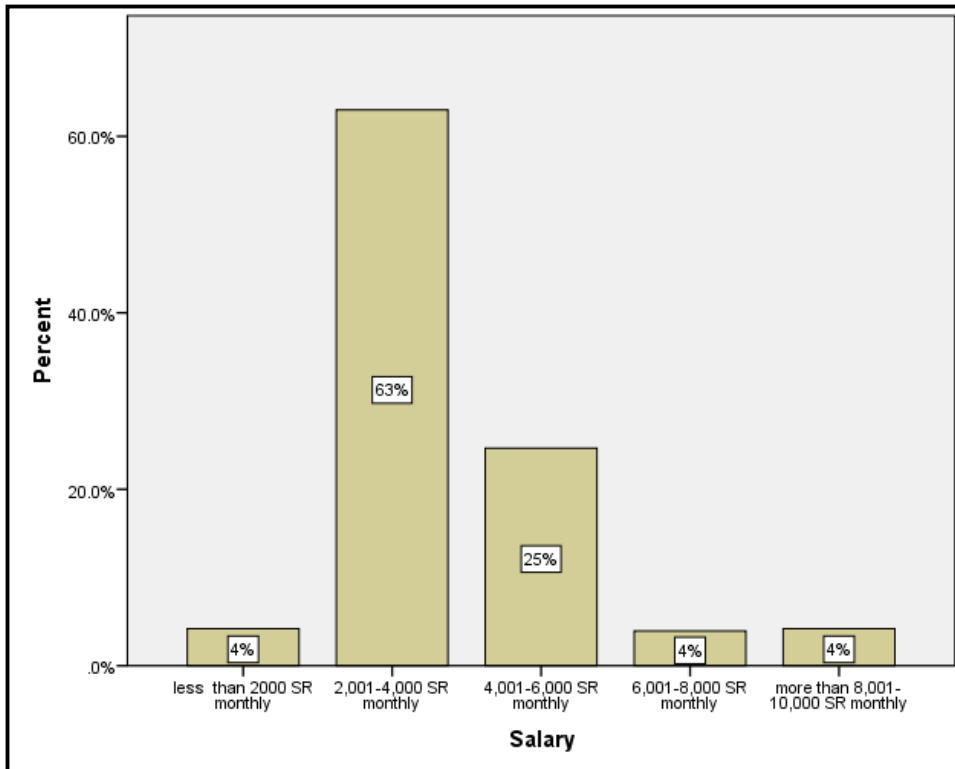


Figure 6.9: Salary

The literature review revealed that one of the main employment issues for working women in Arab countries is low salaries. Therefore, the survey asked the participants to indicate their monthly salary within a range. These ranges were: less than 2000, 2001 – 4000, 4001 – 6000, 6001 – 8000 and more than 8001 SR per month. Figure 6.9 above illustrates that the majority of survey participants, 63%, were earning between 2000 to 4000 SR per month. 25% were earning between 4001 and 6000 SR, 4% were earning less than 2000 SR, 4% were earning more than 8001 SR while another 4% were earning between 6001 to 8000 SR. These figures indicate that the sampled women were earning relatively low salaries. Salaries vary widely depending on qualifications and skills, degree and nationality in both KSA and UAE. According to Riyadh news (see alriyadh.com) the Ministry of Labour revealed that the average salary for Saudis in the private sector is 4,748 SR and 1,176 SR for international workers, less than 8,000 SR for both national and international employees. In UAE, the UAE federal labour law does not provide any calculations for the average salary for minimum wage standards.

However, even though workers in the tourism sector have lower wages and get poorly paid, according to a guide to Dubai (see guide2dubai.com), the average salary for administration, reception and secretarial staff, from which most of my sample were taken, is Dh7,992, and both UAE and KSA are likely to increase the wages for such employees.

6.4 Motivation for Work

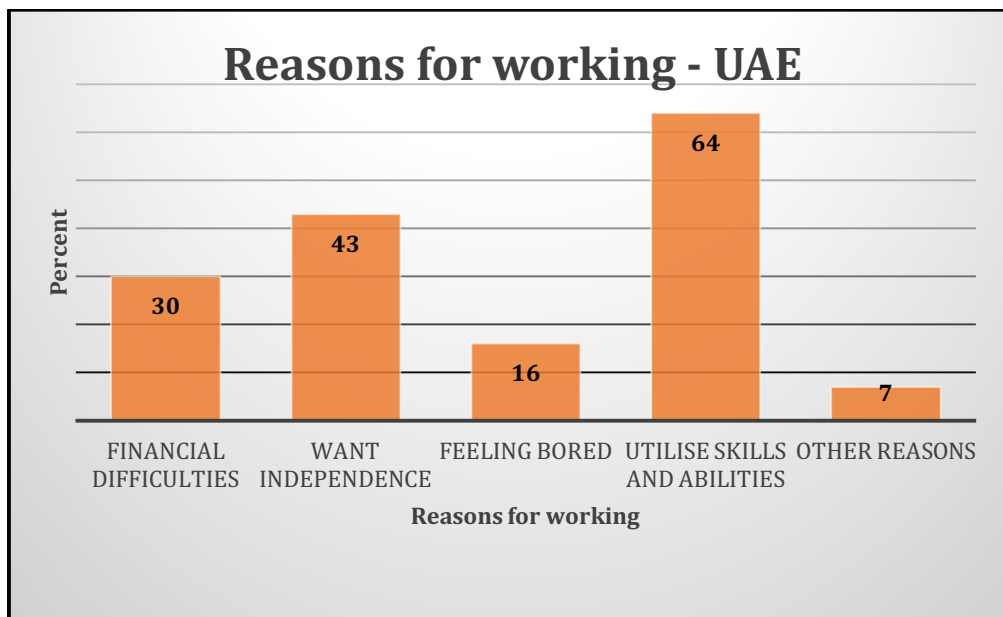


Figure 6.10: Reasons for Working – UAE

Figure 6.10 illustrates the reasons the survey respondents in the UAE gave for working. The respondents were asked to indicate all relevant categories. A majority of the employees, 64%, indicated that they were working to 'utilise their skills and abilities'; 43% said they worked because they wanted independence; 30% were motivated to work by 'financial difficulties'; 16% were 'feeling bored'; and 7% had 'other reasons' for working. As the two main determinants of working are wanting to utilise skills and abilities, and wanting independence, this suggests that women working in hotels in the UAE are motivated to work for personal development reasons. Nevertheless, for this sample of women financial difficulties are also an important reason for working.

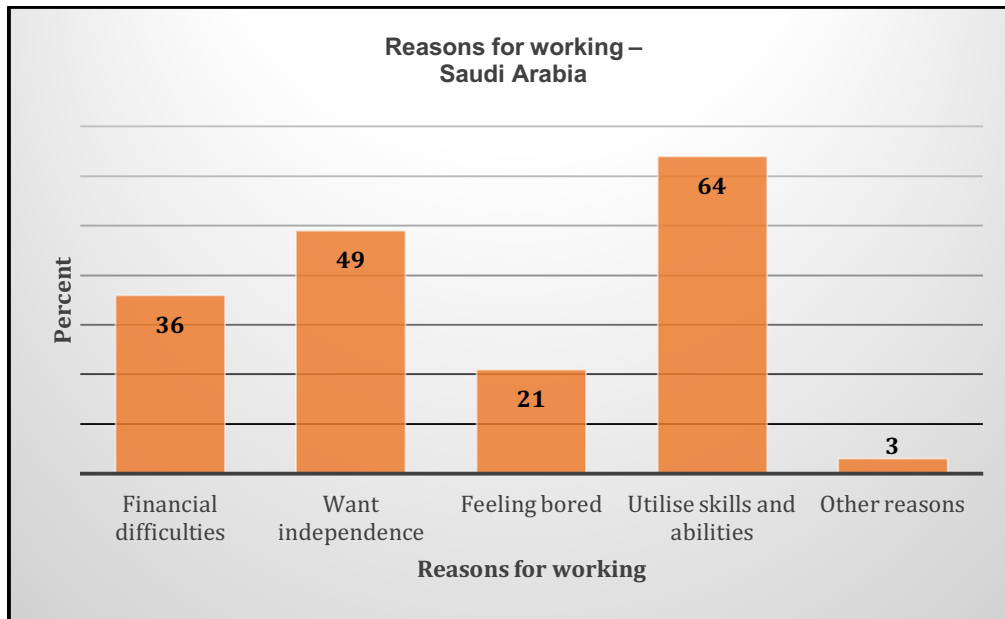


Figure 6.11: Reasons for Working – KSA

Figure 6.11 shows pattern of reasons given for working by women in KSA. As in the UAE, a majority, 64%, indicated that they were working to utilise their skills and abilities; 49% were working to enhance their independence; 36% indicated that financial difficulties were a motivation for work; 21% worked to alleviate feelings of boredom; and 3% recorded 'other' non specified reasons. As in the UAE, the two main reasons given for working in KSA were wanting to utilise skills and abilities and wanting independence.

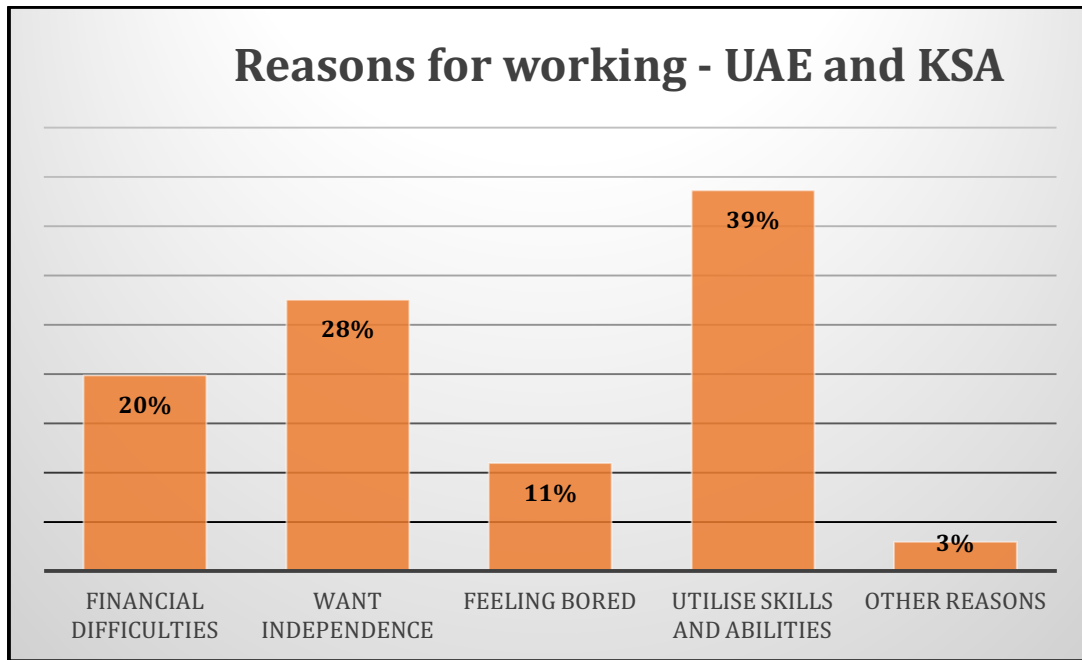


Figure 6.12: Reasons for Working – UAE and KSA

Figure 6.12 shows the reasons given for working for the whole sample in both the UAE and KSA. In line with the individual country results, the largest proportion of participants, 39%, said that they are working to utilise their skills and abilities; 28% wanted independence; 20% were motivated to work by financial difficulties; 11% were bored; and 3% recorded other, non-specified reasons. Overall the most cited reasons for working were wanting to utilise skills and abilities, wanting independence and financial difficulties.

6.5 Barriers to Work

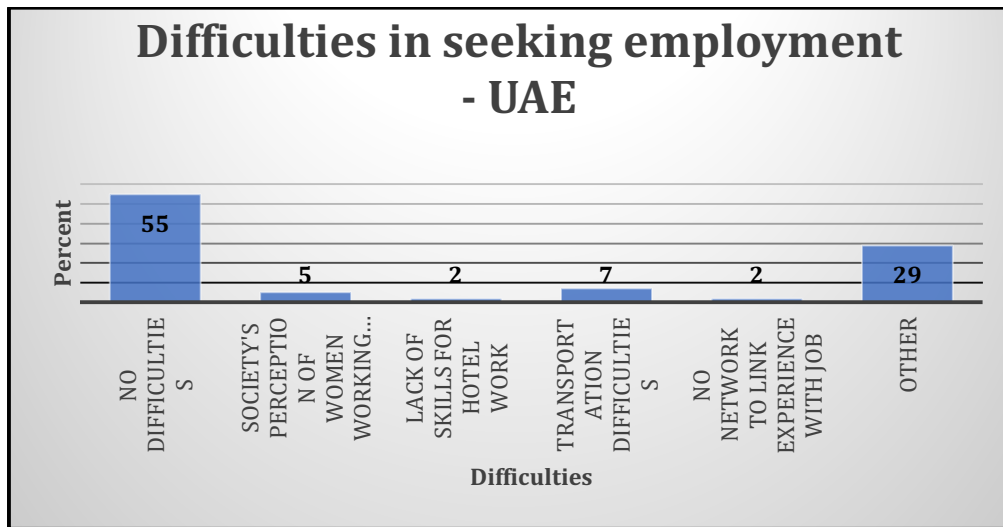


Figure 6.13: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – UAE

Figure 6.13 shows the responses to a question asking the participants to choose from a list those difficulties they had experienced while seeking employment. Interestingly, a majority of the UAE sub-sample indicated that they experienced no difficulties while seeking employment; 29% said that they experienced 'other' difficulties i.e. difficulties not listed as options 7% experienced difficulties with transportation; 5% with society's perception of women working in the hotel sector; 2% lacked the skills required for hotel work; and 2% said that there was no network to link their experience to a job. The researcher had expected society's perception of working women to be a significant barrier to employment but this was not the case for the UAE sub-sample.

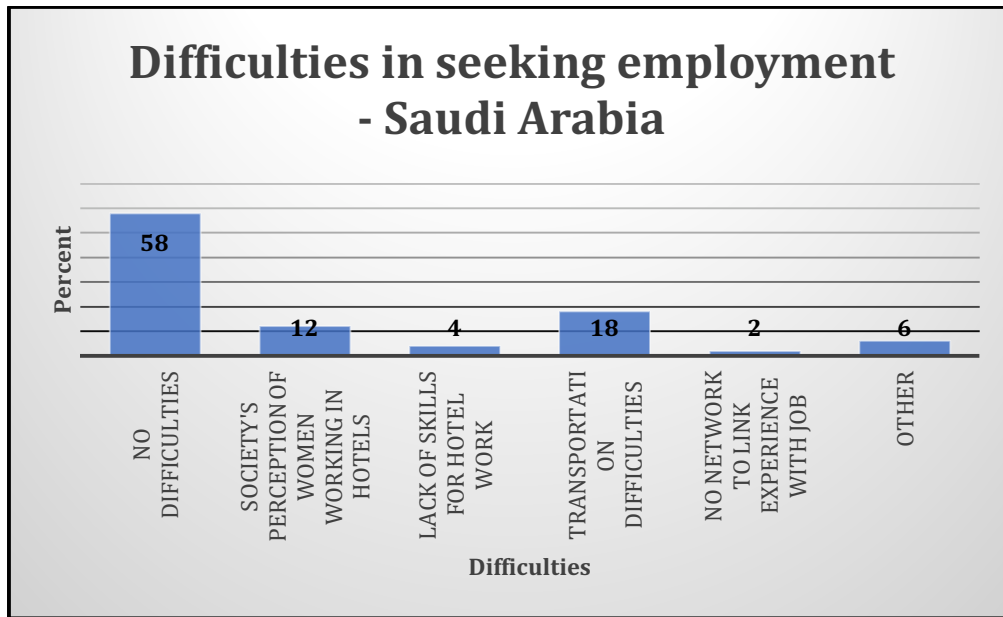


Figure 6.14: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – KSA

Figure 6.14 summarises the pattern of difficulties faced by working women in KSA experienced while seeking employment. As in the UAE, more than half of the survey participants indicated that they experienced 'no difficulties' while seeking employment. However, 18% said that they had experienced transportation difficulties, probably because women in KSA are not permitted to drive; 12% had experienced problems due to the society's perceptions of women working in the hotel sector; 6% had experienced 'other' problems; 4% indicated difficulties due to lack of skills relevant for hotel work; and 2% indicated that the lack of network was an issue, suggesting it is important for women to create networks and connections in order to improve opportunities for finding jobs.

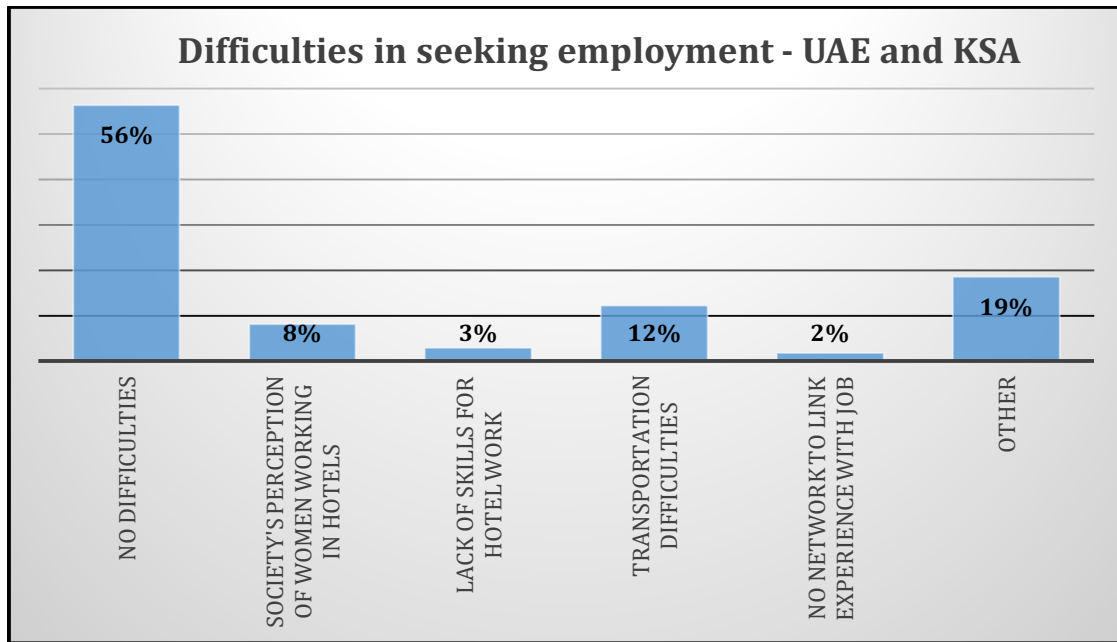


Figure 6.15: Difficulties in Seeking Employment – UAE and KSA

Figure 6.15 summarises the responses on difficulties in seeking employment for both countries. In line with the individual country level responses, a majority of women, 56%, expressed that they did not experience any difficulties in seeking employment; 19% said they experienced ‘other’ problems not listed in the questionnaire; 12% said they faced transportation difficulties; 8% indicated society’s perception of women working in hotels as a difficulty; 3% indicated lack of skills for hotel work as an issue; and 2% said recorded that lack of a relevant network was a barrier to work.

Although the literature review suggested that a majority of working women in Arab countries experienced difficulties while seeking employment due to the society’s perception of working women, the results of this survey do not highlight this as a significant issue. This may be because the literature review sources that discuss this issue are mainly referring to Arab women, and a large proportion of the survey participants, particularly in the UAE are from non-Arab countries. However, given that the sample consists of women who are in work it is likely to be unrepresentative of women overall, and particularly women who want to work but for a variety of reasons do not.

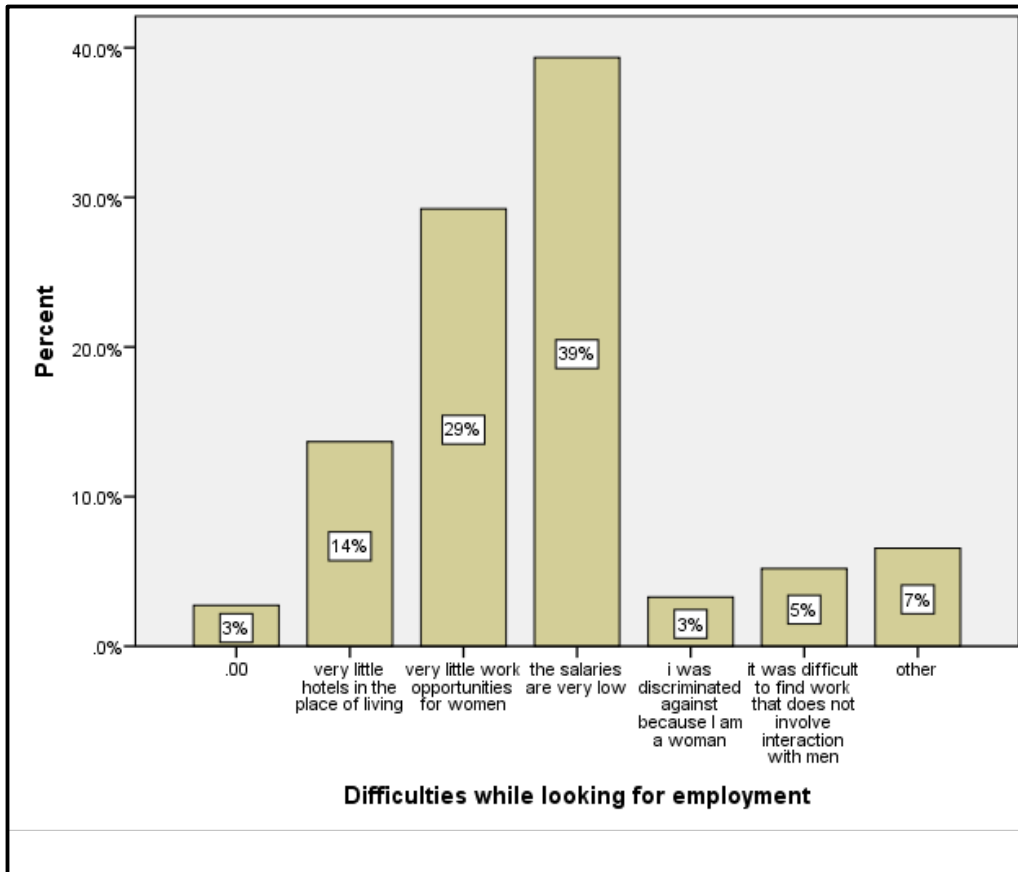


Figure 6.16: Difficulties while Looking for Employment

Figure 6.16 summarises the responses of the sample to a related question asking the participants to choose from a different list of possible difficulties in looking for work included. The two separate questions were included as a check and also to avoid including very long lists of possible responses. In response to this question, a majority, 39%, said that one difficulty was that salaries were very low; 29% indicated that there were very few work opportunities for women; 14% said there were very little hotels where they lived; 7% selected 'other' difficulties not mentioned in the question; 5% indicated that it was difficult to find employment that did not involve interaction with men; and 3% said they had experienced gender discrimination. 3% of the survey participants did not reply to this question. These responses suggest that a significant barrier to employment for women is that in UAE and KSA the opportunities for women to find a 'good' well paid job are limited.

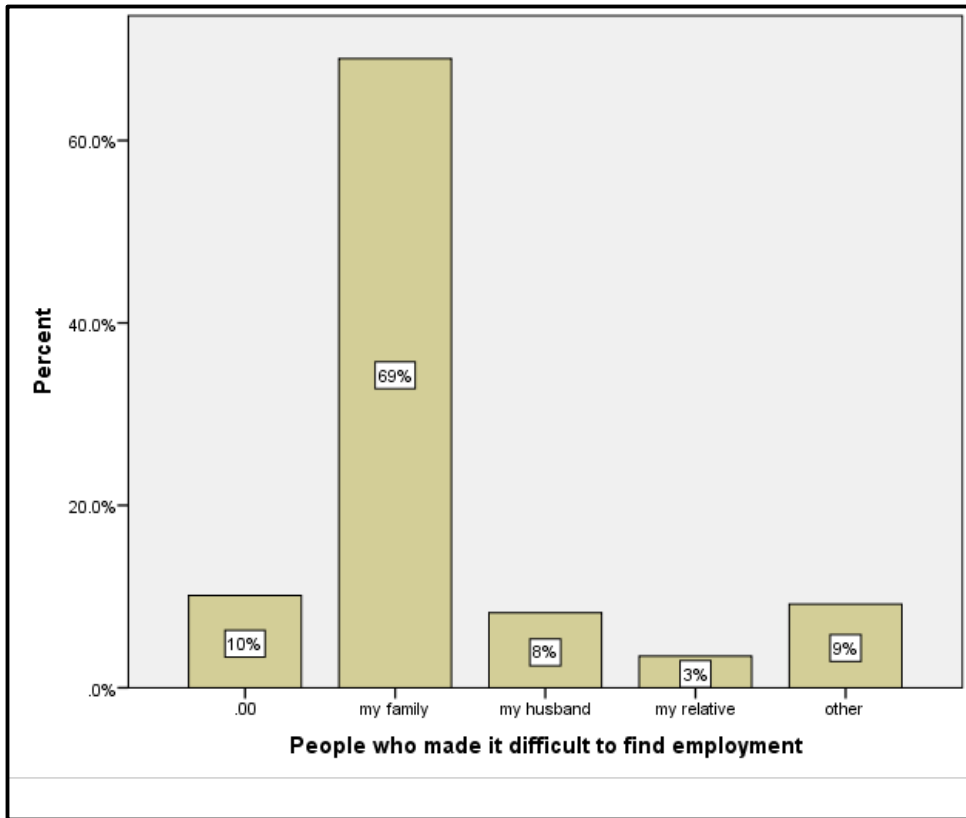


Figure 6.17: People who Made it Difficult to find Employment

Figure 6.17 summarizes the responses of sample members to a question asking specifically who, if anyone, made it difficult for the women to find employment. A majority, 69%, of the participants indicated that their family had made it difficult for them to secure employment; 9% specified 'other' people not listed in the question, these could include neighbours or friends; 8% indicated that their husband had made it difficult for them to work; and 3% pointed to other relatives. 10% of the survey participants did not answer this question. These responses indicate that many of the women thought that their immediate family (including children, their husband and other close relatives) had been a barrier to them taking up work.

6.6 Issues and Problems Related to Work-life Balance

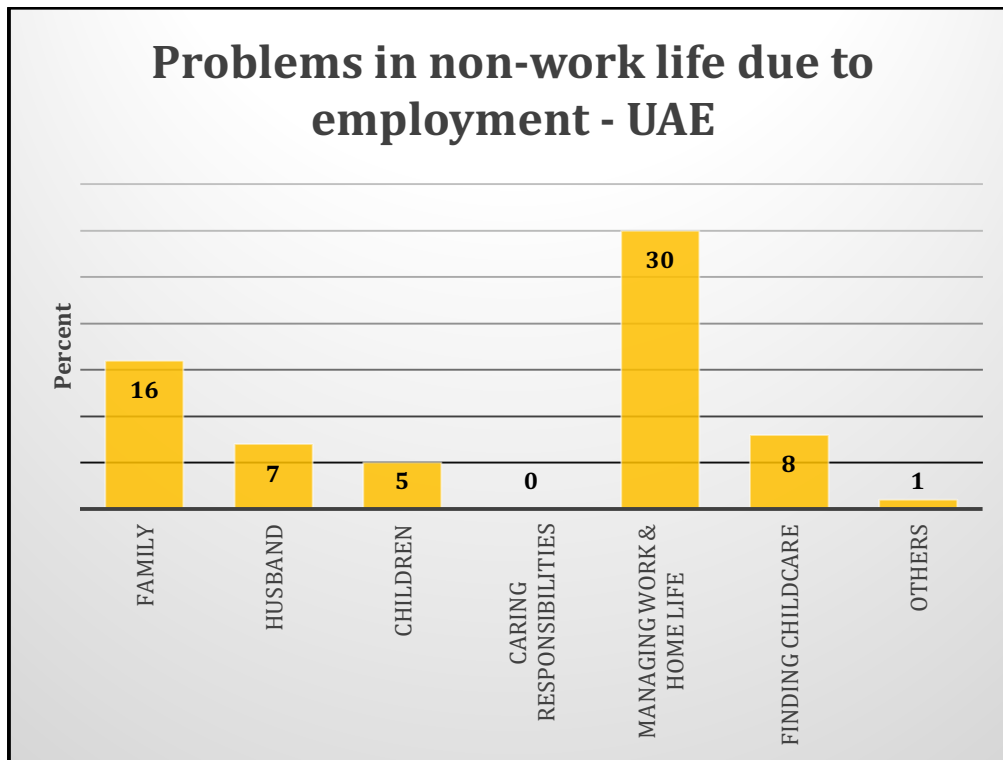


Figure 6.18: Problems in Life due to Employment – UAE

Figure 6.18 summarises the responses of the UAE sub-sample to the question asking about problems in their non-work life because of their employment. A majority of women, 30%, indicated that managing their work and home life was a problem; 16% indicated that their work caused problems linked to their family life; 8% indicated that finding childcare in order to go to work was a problem; 7% indicated that their work caused problems in their relationship with their husband; 5% indicated that their work caused problems related to their responsibilities for their children, 1% indicated that their work caused 'other problems not listed in the questionnaire; none indicated that their work caused problems linked to their caring responsibilities.

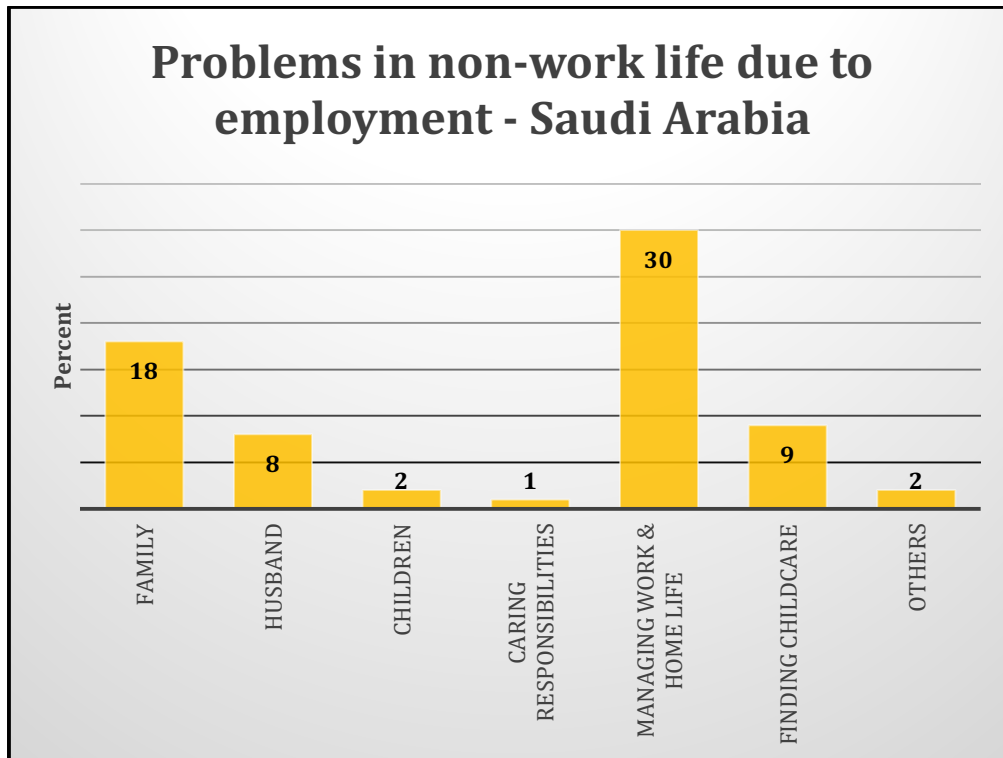


Figure 6.19: Problems in Life due to Employment – KSA

Figure 6.19 summarises the corresponding data for the KSA sub-sample. In KSA, as in the UAE, the most significant problem noted was in managing work and home life, 30% of the sub-sample indicated that this was an issue; 18% indicated problems linked to their family life; 9% recorded problems because of needing to organise childcare; 8% indicated that their work caused problems in their relationship with their husband; 2% because of their children; 2% indicated there were 'other' problems not listed in the questionnaire; and 1% indicated that their work caused problems linked to their caring responsibilities.

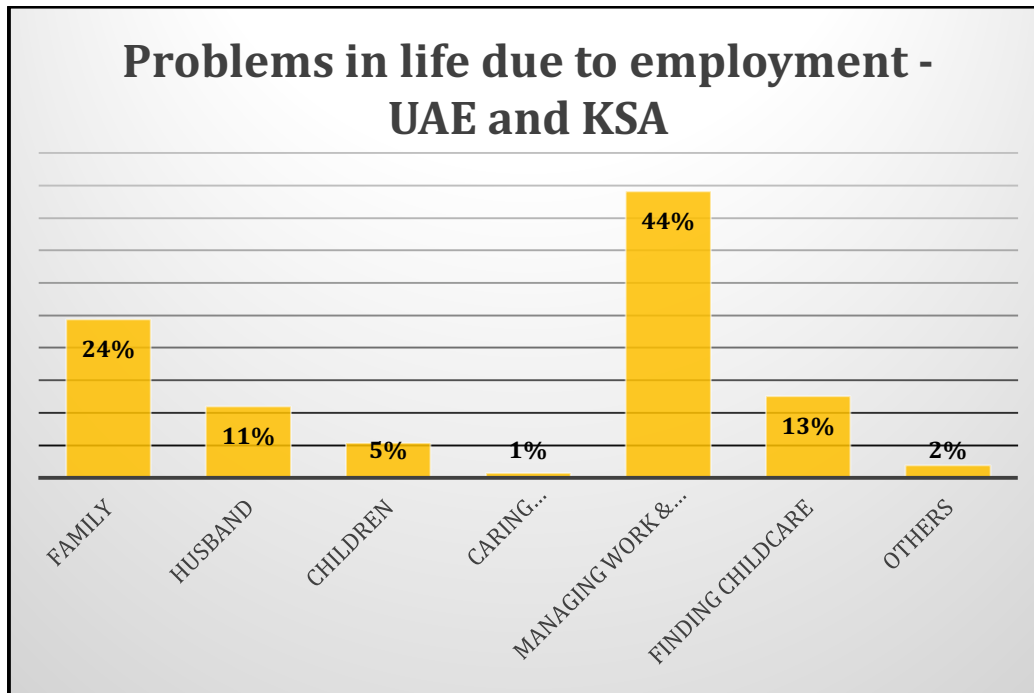


Figure 6.20: Problems in Life due to Employment – UAE and KSA

Figure 6.20 summarises the responses to the question for both countries. The main issue related to managing work and family life with 44% selecting this option and 24% specifically recording that there were problems linked to their family.

The pattern is very similar in both countries. The responses suggest that while a majority of women indicated that managing work and home life is a problem, this is not specifically due to what the respondents themselves are able to classify as caring responsibilities, although a large minority indicated that there were issues because of their children e.g. in finding childcare. This result is consistent with the previously noted result that only 21% of the sample indicated that they had caring responsibilities. Possibly caring responsibilities for children or other family members are managed through other people – child carers, formal carers or other family members. Nevertheless the second most significant problem cited related to the sample members' families and this is likely to implicate wider responsibilities, beyond what might be perceived as caring, for children, husbands and extended family

members. Presumably in this context, the time available to the sampled women to spend with their family or on their family, is constrained by their paid work.

6.7 The Overall Experience of Work: Satisfaction with Work

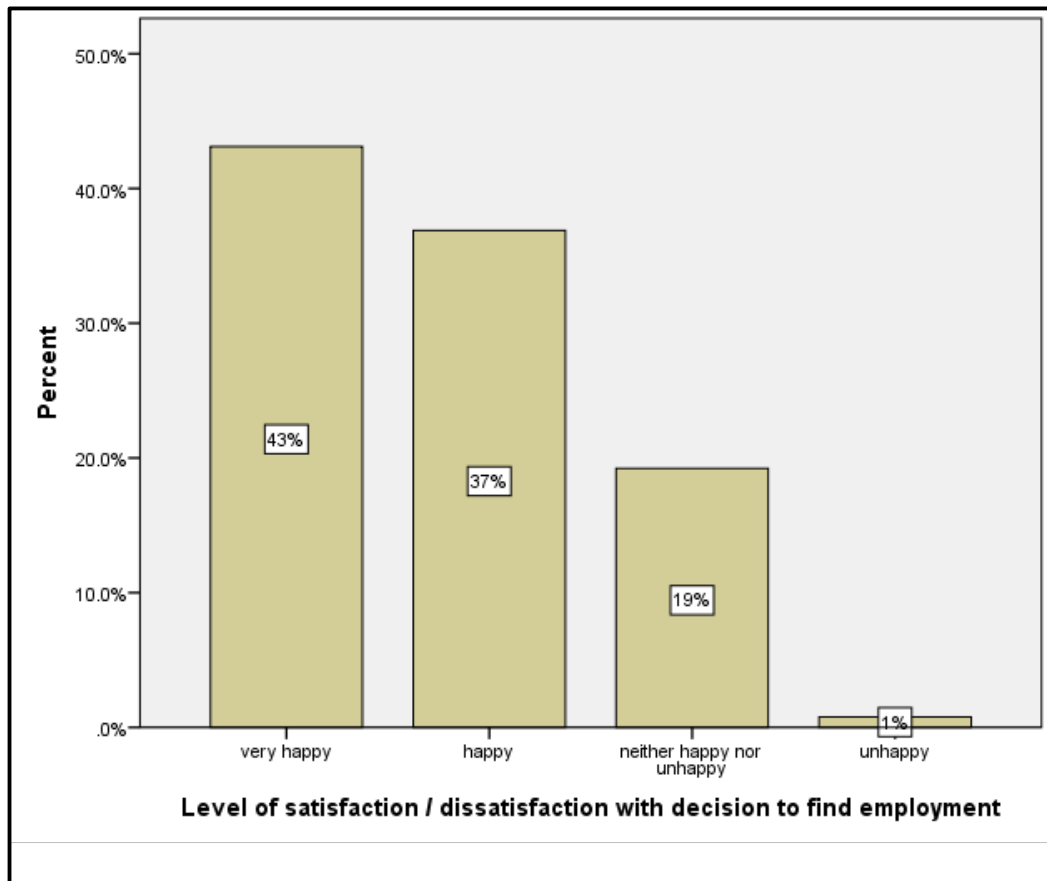


Figure 6.21: Level of Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction with Decision to find Employment

Figure 6.21 reports the responses to a question about the level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the decision to take up employment. A majority of the women, 43%, said that they were very happy (satisfied) with their decision to work; 37% indicated that they were happy with their decision; 19% were neither happy nor unhappy; and 1% were unhappy. In total, 80% of the survey participants were at least happy with their decision to work. This suggests that despite the challenges, obstacles and barriers faced by the women in this sample, the majority were happy to be in employment.

6.8 Policy Implications: Perspectives on Flexible Working

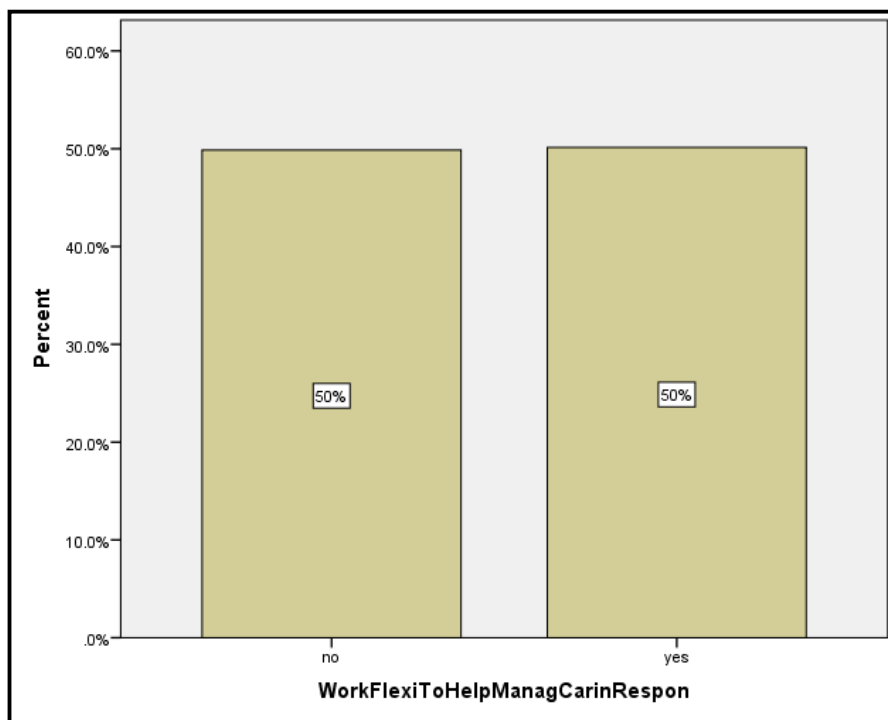


Figure 6.22: Work Flexibly to Help Manage Caring Responsibilities

The survey also asked the respondents to think about whether flexible working practices could assist them in managing their family caring responsibilities. Figure 6.22 shows that the sample were divided equally on this question: 50% of the sample thought that flexible working practices could be helpful in this way and 50% did not. Considering that only 21% of the sample indicated that they currently had caring responsibilities, it is interesting that so many were positive about flexible working in this context. One explanation is that in responding to this question some sample members were thinking about their future caring responsibilities and the potential for flexible working arrangements to improve work and personal life balance.

6.9 Summary

In this chapter, summary findings from the survey questionnaires were presented in order to give an initial picture of the sample and the data. The initial results indicate that although both the UAE and KSA are in the Arab cluster, there are differences in the employment situation for women in these two countries. The next two chapters

build on these initial findings by analysing in more depth the data from the questionnaires and the qualitative data from the interviews conducted with 45 of the sampled women. The subsequent analysis highlights the differences and similarities between the sub-samples from the two countries, home national, Arab and expatriate women and women with and without caring responsibilities. This analysis contributes to understanding of the main challenges, enablers and barriers to work that are faced by women in the UAE and KSA, particularly in the case study sector.

A limitation of the research is that while the overall aim is to contribute to knowledge on the employment experience of working women in Arab countries, it was not feasible for the researcher to conduct fieldwork in every Arab country. Instead the research was limited to UAE and KSA and a case study industry, namely the hotel industry which is itself often categorised as a sub-sector of the wider tourism industry. A generalisation of the findings to all Arab countries and all industries and sectors would not therefore be valid, particularly as the research finds wide differences in the employment experiences of women within and between the UAE and KSA.

Chapter 7

Chapter 7: Enablers, Barriers and the Experience of Employment: Analysis of the Survey Responses of 385 Women Working in KSA and UAE Hotels

7.0 Introduction

This part of the research analyses the data from 385 responses to the questionnaire survey conducted with female employees working in a wide range of roles in hotels in KSA and the UAE. As well as including representation from KSA and UAE, the sample of women included both home nationals and expatriates, Arabs and non-Arabs, women with and without caring responsibilities and women of different ages. This enabled the researcher to explore whether and how the experiences of seeking work and work itself were different for these different sub-samples of women. In the fieldwork, the survey was conducted in combination with one-to-one and small group interviews, the data from the interviews is analysed in the following chapter.

The main aim of the research overall was to contribute to understanding of the work experiences of women employed in the hotel sector in KSA and UAE. Within this wider remit, the research aims to identify the barriers to finding and staying in employment, the potential enablers and motivators for work and to explore women's overall satisfaction with their work experience. By focussing on the hotel sector we control for the working environment to some extent while at the same time we are able to contrast female employment in two very different Arab countries and the working experiences of both home national and expatriate female employees. We are also able to consider whether women with caring responsibilities face particular issues in this sector. The concern in respect of the latter was to explore how the traditional allocation of family care responsibilities to Arab women and women more generally impacts on their experience of employment in these two Gulf States.

The questionnaire elicited information on the type of work undertaken by women in the hotel sector in these two Arab countries and included questions about their working conditions and the kinds of barriers to employment they had experienced. It additionally

included a number of questions relating to motivation for working and satisfaction with work and the working environment. The questions relating to satisfaction with work provide some insights on the samples' subjective valuations of their working experiences and indirectly their workplace wellbeing. This information is of interest since it gives an indication of the quality of the working experience and also because of the well documented relationship between wellbeing of employees and their productivity and performance (Addley et al., 2014), (Goetzel and Ozminkowski, 2006). Because of this relationship, there are material incentives for employers to intervene to support and promote the wellbeing of their employees.

The particular focus of the analysis reported in this chapter is to analyse the questionnaire data in order to investigate: (i) the characteristics of the main sub-samples that are represented in the full sample; (ii) whether different sub-samples of women who have themselves succeeded in finding work, identify different barriers to work; (iii) whether different sub-samples are motivated to work by different factors; and (iv) whether different sub-samples have different experiences of work, in particular whether they are more or less satisfied with their working situation and whether they are satisfied/dissatisfied with different aspects of their work. We also further investigate perspectives on flexible working practices.

We expect the experiences of the different sub-samples represented to differ for a number of reasons. As discussed in earlier chapters, while both KSA and UAE are Arab countries, their different histories, cultures and societies make for very different working environments, particularly for women. Similarly, as discussed in Chapter 4, expatriate women are likely to experience particular problems and issues and their reasons for working may also differ from those of nationals. However, as most, but not all of the expatriate women in the sample are also non-Arabs this distinction also needs to be taken into account. We also want to explore whether and how the experience of work is different for women with caring responsibilities. Our expectation is that for this group of women there are additional barriers to working. Since these two countries have faced many recent social changes we also need to take the age of individuals into account. Younger women may be more able to meet the

challenges of work in these two countries, possibly because they will have fewer family responsibilities but also because they may have less traditional attitudes to work, family and the place of women in society. Similar starting points for comparison are used in the following chapter based on the analysis of the data obtained from the part of the fieldwork incorporating face-to-face interviewers. As discussed in Chapter 6, this combined, triangulating approach, which uses different sources of data to address the same set of research questions, aims to achieve maximum accuracy and knowledge about the research topic, in this case the working experiences of a sample of women in KSA and UAE. By using mixed-methods rather than a mono-method of data collection to gather information (a survey questionnaire to collect quantitative data and interviews to collect qualitative data) the study aims to provide data that because it originates from different sources, can be used to verify and validate the findings. Nevertheless, as this study only gathered data from a sample of women working in hotels, the conclusions cannot be generalised to all women working in hotels in KSA and UAE.

7.1 Sample Characteristics and Overlapping Sub-samples

385 women participated in the survey (45 women also participated in interviews). Women working in a wide range of roles were represented and as previously stated, the respondents included women with and without caring responsibilities, both home nationals and expatriates and Arabs and non-Arabs. This demographic information allowed us to stratify the data and explore differences and similarities between the working conditions, barriers to employment and motivators for finding and staying in employment across four main demographic groups:

1. Country: UAE and KSA
2. Nationality: Home national or expatriate; Arab or non-Arab
3. Caring responsibilities: With/without caring responsibilities for children or adults; with/without children
4. Different age groups

These groups were selected, in line with the conceptual model developed in conjunction with the literature review, to investigate whether and how the conditions of

women working in hotels in Arab countries varied according to the different cultural context of the country in which they were employed, their nationality status, their caring responsibilities and their age.

The demographic characteristics of the sample (summarised in Table 7.1) show a fairly even distribution by country, nationality and migrant status with expatriates constituting marginally more than 50% of the sample (54.03%). The sample is relatively young (77.40% < 29) mainly single and therefore unsurprisingly the majority do not have children. However, just under a third (32.99%) have caring responsibilities for either a child or an adult. Of course, having children may usually implies some childcare responsibilities, but these will vary. For example, expatriate women may be physically separated from their children but still provide indirect care, for example through money transfers or advice to their children and their caregivers.

Table 7.1: Sample Characteristics (n=385)

Characteristic	All n = 385	
<i>Location and Nationality</i>	n	%
Working in KSA	180	46.75
Working in UAE	205	53.25
Arab home or ex-pat national	190	49.35
Arab home national	177	45.97
Arab expatriate	13	3.38
Expatriate non-Arab	195	50.65
Expatriate	208	54.03
<i>Age</i>		
Age 18-28	298	77.40
Age 29-39	73	18.96
Age ≥ 40	14	3.64
<i>Marital status</i>		
Single (not previously married)	218	56.62
Married	154	40.00
Divorced/other	13	3.38
<i>Children and Caring responsibilities</i>		
Has own children	78	20.26
Has caring responsibilities (for a child < 15 yrs, disabled child, disabled adult > 15 yrs, elderly person, other)	127	32.99
Caring < 5 hours a day (if caring)	99	25.71
Caring ≥ 5 hours day (if caring)	28	7.28

Table 7.2 compares the characteristics of participants by country and nationality. The data show that in KSA, the participants were much more likely to be home nationals and Arabs. This is the mirror image of the UAE sub-sample whose members were much more likely to be expatriates and non-Arabs. In both sub-samples expatriates were much less likely to be Arab. The Saudi sample was also older and although they were more likely to be single they were also more likely to have their own children. Expatriates were marginally younger than home-nationals (but not significantly so) but they were less likely to be single. There were no significant differences by country or nationality in the incidence of caring responsibilities. The data in Table 7.2 suggest that the Saudi, home-national and Arab sub-samples are overlapping as are the UAE, expatriate and non-Arab sub-samples. This is illustrated more clearly in Figure 7.1.

Table 7.2: Sample Characteristics by Country and Home/Expatriate Nationality

Characteristic	Country (% of country sub-sample)		Nationality (% of national sub-sample)	
	KSA	UAE	Expatriate	Home national
Expatriate	1.67	91.22***	100	0
Arab (home or ex-pat)	88.33	15.12***	6.25	100***
Age \geq 29	26.67	19.02*	21	23.73
Single (not previously married)	62.77	51.22**	50	64***
Has own children	25.00	16.1**	20.67	19.77
Has caring responsibilities	34.00	32.00	31.73	34.46

***, **, * Sub-sample means significantly different in a two-sample t test at 1%, 5%, 10% levels of significance

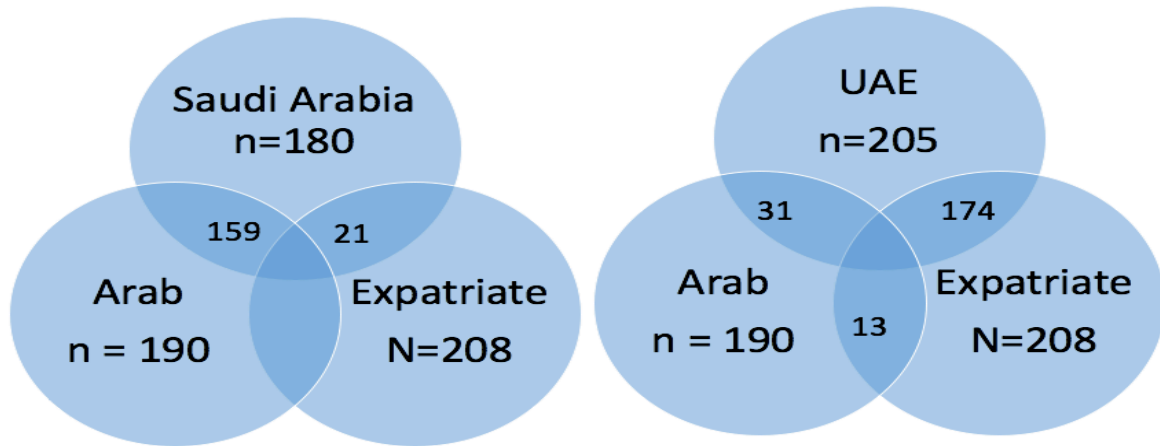


Figure 7.1: Overlapping Sub-samples

Table 7.3 summarises the job and work related characteristics of the sample members. The data show that the majority of the sample are relatively low earners (earning less than 4000 SR a month (~£684)) and have been with their current employer for less than a year. However, the majority are working full time and on full-time contracts. Job roles are distributed fairly evenly between frontline, back office and other roles (including kitchen staff and housekeeping).

Table 7.3: Job Characteristics of the Sample in KSA and UAE

All n = 385		
Job characteristics	N	%
Monthly salary < 4000 Saudi Riyal	256	62.99
Monthly salary 4000 – 6000 SR	94	24.67
Monthly salary > 6000 SR	31	8.16
Tenure < 1 year	196	50.91
Tenure 1-3 years	88	22.86
Tenure ≥ 4 years	101	26.24
Permanent job	221	57.55
Fixed period contract	79	20.57
Other temporary contract (season, agency, fixed task, other)	84	42.45
Full time (> 35 hours a week)	360	93.99
Job role		
Frontline/customer facing: Reception	64	16.62
Frontline/customer & non-customer facing: Restaurant	81	21.04
Housekeeping	71	18.44
Back office: Marketing/Sales	45	11.69
Back office: Human Resources	33	8.57
Other	91	23.64

* 1 Saudi Riyal = £0.171 *1 United Arab Emirates Dirham = 1.02 Saudi Riyal

Tables 7.4 and 6.5 compare the job characteristics of the sample by country, nationality, age group and whether a sample member has children or caring responsibilities.

Table 7.4: Job Characteristics by Country, Arab/non-Arab & Home/Expatriate identity

Characteristic	Country		Arab status		Nationality	
	KSA	UAE	Arab	Non-Arab	Expatriate	Home national
Salary: % of sub-sample earning \geq 4000 SR p. month	27.22	39.02**	27.89	38.97**	36.54	29.94*
Tenure: % of sub-sample tenure <1 year	54.44	47.81	53.16	48.72	49.52	52.54
Job roles: % of sub-sample						
Reception	20	13.66*	23.16	10.25***	13.94	19.77
Housekeeping	5.55	29.76***	3.16	33.33***	31.25	3.38***
Restaurant	9.44	31.22***	13.16	28.72***	28.85	11.86***
Marketing/sales	15.56	8.29**	15.26	8.21**	7.69	16.38**
HR	10.56	6.83	12.11	5.13**	4.81	12.99***
Other	38.89	10.24***	33.16	14.36***	13.46	35.59***

***, **, * Sub-sample means significantly different in a two-sample t test at 1%, 5%, 10% levels of significance

The data show that earnings are higher for the overlapping UAE, non-Arab and expatriate sub-samples who are also more likely to be working in housekeeping and restaurants. The Saudi, Arab, home-national sub-samples are more likely to be working in reception, marketing/sales and HR. Within the Saudi, Arab and home-national overlapping sub-samples, a larger minority did not specify their job role (simply recording the 'other' category).

Table 7.5: Job Characteristics by Age Group, Presence of Children & Caring Responsibilities

Variable	Age group		Children		Caring responsibilities	
	<29	≥29	Has children	No children	Carer	Non-carer
Salary: % earning ≥4000 p. month	31.21	41.37*	16.67	37.78***	36.22	32.17
Tenure: % Less than 1 year	56.38	32.18***	55.13	49.83	41.73	55.42**
Job roles: % of sub-sample						
Reception	17.11	14.94	19.23	15.96	14.96	17.44
Housekeeping	20.47	11.49*	25.64	16.61*	15.75	19.77
Restaurant	24.50	9.20***	6.41	24.76***	27.56	17.83**
Marketing/sales	7.72	25.29***	11.54	11.73	13.39	10.85
HR	6.71	14.94**	8.97	8.47	8.66	8.53
Other	23.49	24.14	22.48	28.21	19.69	25.59

***, **, * Sub-sample means significantly different in a two-sample t test at 1%, 5%, 10% levels of significance

The data in Table 7.5 show that older sample members and those with no children tended to receive higher wages. The higher wages of the former appear could be related to their longer tenure. However, women with caring responsibilities also had longer tenure but their wages were not significantly higher than those of non-carers. Those employed in backroom office roles tended to be older while carers and women with children were more likely to be employed in restaurants and the latter were marginally more likely to be employed in housekeeping.

7.2 Comparative Analysis of Barriers to Work and Difficulties Caused by Work

This section looks in depth at the barriers to work and the impact of working on family life. Differences by country, nationality and caring responsibilities are investigated.

7.2.1 Barriers to Finding and Staying in Work

In total 150 (38.96%) respondents said they had found it difficult or very difficult to find work. The largest minority (n = 170, 44.16%) said that it had been neither difficult nor easy. Table 6.6 summarises the responses of the sample to questions about 'who' and 'what' had caused difficulties when they were trying to find work and stay in

employment. When asked 'who' had made it difficult for them to find work 76.76% (n=218) pointed to their families but only 9.15% (n= 26) singled out their husbands. The overlapping sub-samples in the UAE, non-Arabs and expatriates were significantly more likely to say that their family had made it difficult for them to find work.

When asked 'what' had made it difficult for them to find work the overlapping sub-samples of women in KSA, home nationals and Arabs and the sub-sample of older women (29 and over) were significantly more likely to say they faced difficulties because of how people thought about women working in hotels and/or in arranging transport to and from work. Women in KSA, home nationals and Arabs (but not the older sub-sample) were also more likely to say that low salaries were a barrier to finding work. This suggests that exogenous social and structural factors such as social attitudes towards working women (gender norms) as well as remuneration were more of an issue for these groups than family circumstances.

A large minority of the sample (n = 107) said they had difficulties finding work because of limited opportunities for women but interestingly expatriate women were significantly more likely to say this. Presumably in so doing they were implicating their home country rather than the two Gulf States. The quantitative aspect of the data does not allow us to explore further what it was about individual situations that acted as a barrier to finding work. These issues were explored further in the qualitative part of the research.

Table 7.6: Barriers to Work⁵

Who and what caused difficulties when trying to find work in hospitality in KSA and UAE	n (%)
Who?	
Family	218 (76.76)
Husband	26 (9.15)
Relative	11 (3.87)
Other people	29 (10.21)
What?	
Negative perceptions of women working in hotels	31 (8.09)
Lack of appropriate skills	11 (2.87)
Difficulties arranging transport to/from work	47 (12.27)
Lack of networks/experience	7 (1.83)
Only a few hotels where living	50 (13.66)
Few employment opportunities for women	107 (29.23)
Low salaries	144 (9.34)
discrimination against women	12 (3.28)
Difficulty of finding work that did not involve interaction with men	19 (5.19)
Other difficulties	80 (20.78)

7.2.2 Work-life Balance, Flexible Working and Job Changes

In a mirror image of the question ‘who’ had made it difficult for them to find work, the respondents were asked whether their work had caused problems for them in relation to aspects of their home life. Over half of the sample claimed that their work had caused problems in relation to some aspect of life outside work (Table 7.7). Older women (29 and over) were significantly more likely to say their work had caused issues with their family. Women with children as well as older women (≥ 29) were significantly more likely to say that their work had caused issues with their husbands and unsurprisingly women with children and carers in general said that their work had led to difficulties finding childcare. Women in KSA were marginally more likely to say that their work had caused issues related to their children. Women with children, carers and older women

⁵ Women in UAE, non-Arabs, expatriate workers, younger women and women with no children were significantly more likely identify family as a barrier to finding work. Women in Saudi Arabia, home nationals, Arabs and older women were significantly more likely to identify “Negative perceptions of women working in hotels”, “Difficulties arranging transport to/from work” and “Low salaries”. Expatriate women were more likely to identify “Few employment opportunities for women”. Women in Saudi Arabia, home nationals and Arabs were also more likely to report discrimination and difficulties finding work that did not involve interaction with men, but the numbers identifying such factors as a barrier to finding work were very low. ($P < 0.05$ in all cases).

(29 and over) were all significantly more likely to say that their work had caused problems in relation to at least one area of their home life.

Table 7.7: Problems Caused by Working⁶

Area/people affected	Number affected (%)
Issues with family	64 (16.62)
Issues with husband	29 (8.43)
Issues with children	14 (3.64)
Issues with carers	2 (0.52)
Difficulties managing work and home life	116 (30.13)
Difficulties finding care for children while at work	33 (8.57)
Other difficulties	5 (1.3%)
Any of above	226 (58.70)

In the context of these results we were interested in whether flexible work practices could help women to better manage their work-life balance, particularly those with caring responsibilities. When asked ‘Would flexible hours help you to manage your home/caring responsibilities?’ 50.13% of the whole sample (n=193) responded positively. Those who thought flexible working hours could help them were significantly more likely to have children, be home nationals, Arab nationals and working in KSA (all significant at 1% level or higher). The particular importance of work practices for women with caring responsibilities was also supported to some extent by responses to the question: ‘Have you changed job in last year to better manage home/caring responsibilities?’ 20.05% (n=77) of the sample responded positively to this question and this sub-sample were significantly more likely to be carers but were not more likely to have children and neither was marital status significant. When asked (as a check) the very similar question ‘Have you changed you job in the last year because of caring responsibilities or any other reason?’ 30.65% (n=118) responded positively and those who did so were, perhaps unsurprisingly, significantly more likely to be carers as well

⁶ Notes: Women with children were significantly more likely to identify “Issues with husband” ($p<0.01$). Women in Saudi Arabia were more likely to identify “Issues with children” ($p<0.1$). Women with children and those with caring responsibilities were significantly more likely to identify “Difficulties finding care for children while at work” ($p<0.01$; $p<0.05$) and significantly more likely to cite any of the reasons in Table 6.7 ($p<0.01$ in each case).

as younger (<29) but were no more likely to have children and neither was marital status significant. The analysis suggests that work practices are important, that the possibility of more flexible work practices was viewed positively and that some women, particularly those with caring responsibilities found it necessary to change their jobs to fit around their family responsibilities. This suggests that, in line with early discussions, these women could benefit most from more flexible work practices.

7.3 Motivation for Work and Satisfaction with the Working Experience

In spite of the difficulties faced by women in finding work in KSA and UAE, many do as evidenced by this sample. We were interested to understand the underlying motivation of the sample members to find and stay in work, what it was about their work that made it worth facing the many challenges in order to stay in work and how satisfaction with different aspects of work varied across the sample. Indeed, when asked whether they were happy about their decision to work, the majority of the sample said they were happy or very happy with this decision (43% said they were very happy and 36.88% were happy, 19.22% said they were neither happy nor unhappy and only 0.78 (n=3) said they were unhappy). However, those employed in KSA, Arabs, home nationals and respondents with children were significantly less happy with their decision to find a job.

When asked directly about their motivation for working, Table 7.8 shows that the main reason cited for finding work were to utilise skills and abilities and because of a desire for independence. However, financial reasons, the third most common response, were significantly more likely to be recorded by women with children. Interestingly women with caring responsibilities were more likely to cite a wish for independence as a reason for working.

Table 7.8: Reasons for Working⁷

Reasons for working	n (%)
To utilise skills and abilities	247 (64.16)
Wish for independence	176 (45.83)
Financial difficulties	127 (33.07)
Boredom and something to do	70 (18.18)
Other reasons	19 (4.94)

To explore the sample members' valuations of the quality of their experience of work and the working environment, 24 statements capturing aspects of work were included in the questionnaire. The respondents were asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with these statements. The statements were derived from previous research and were used to construct composite indices or scales of satisfaction with work (Table 7.9). The internal consistency of the scales was confirmed by the Cronbach's alpha value of 0.88 (see below).

Table 7.9: Satisfaction with Work Measures

The construct	Coverage of questions	Sources for questions
Satisfaction with work	Type of work, nature of work, supervision, management, co-workers, training, job security, pay, promotion possibilities, sense of belonging, loyalty to the job	Brown and Peterson (1993); Back et al., (2010); Fullerton (2005); Clark et al., (2008); Hackman and Oldham (1980); Oshagbemi (2013); Spector (1997); Watson et al. (2007).

Table 7.10 and 7.11 summarise strength of agreement with two groups of positive statements about a features of the respondent's job (responses were on a Likert scale of 1-5 with higher numbers recording stronger agreement). In Table 7.10, the statements come from different sources. Statement ii '*I like my colleagues*' was agreed

⁷ Notes: Women in UAE were more likely to record "other reasons" than women in KSA ($p < 0.05$); Women with caring responsibilities were more likely to record "Wish for independence" than non-caregivers ($p < 0.05$). Women with children were more likely to say that "Financial difficulties" were their reason for working ($p < 0.01$).

with most strongly. Statements v '*My work is challenging*' and viii '*There are promotion opportunities in my hotel*' were the least agreed with. Among the demographic groups of interest the overlapping UAE and expatriate sub-samples and to a lesser extent the non-Arab sub-sample were more likely to agree with statements iv-vi indicating they more satisfied with their work environment, the degree to which they were challenged and their salary. The UAE and expatriate sub-samples, but not the non-Arab sub-samples, were also more likely to agree with statement viii '*There are promotion opportunities in my hotel*'. There were also some interesting findings in relation to carers and women with/without children and by age. For example, compared with those without caring responsibilities, carers were more likely to agree that their work was interesting and challenging (statements i and v); older women were more likely than younger participants to agree that they were respected by their colleagues (statement iii) possibly due to seniority (reflected in higher wages, see Table 7.5) although they were less likely to agree that their salary was good (statement vi). Both carers and older women were more likely to agree that their job was secure (statement vii) possibly reflected by their longer tenure (see Table 7.5). Women without children were more likely to agree that they liked their colleagues (statement ii) that work was challenging (statement v) and their salary was good (statement vii).

Table 7.10: Strength of Agreement with General Statements about Work⁸

Positive features of job: Strength of agreement with statement (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)	Mean response
i. My work is very interesting	3.97
ii. I like my colleagues	4.34
iii. I am respected by colleagues	4.31
iv. There is a healthy environment in my hotel	3.55
v. My work is challenging	3.33
vi. My salary is good	3.50
vii. My job is secure	3.61
viii. There are promotion opportunities in my hotel	3.33

In Table 7.11, statements 8 and 9 '*Willing to put myself out to help this hotel*' and '*Proud to tell people I work here*' were the most strongly agreed with. Statement 13 '*Fairly paid compared to employees in other hotels doing similar work*' was the least agreed with. The overlapping sub-samples in the UAE, expatriates and non-Arabs are significantly more likely to agree with 10 statements (2, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15 and 16). The UAE sub-sample is significantly more likely to agree with statement 4 '*Supervisor is fair in dealing with me*'. Expatriates are significantly more likely to agree with statement 14 '*Have the necessary training to do my job well*'. In contrast, overlapping sub-samples in KSA, home nationals and Arabs are significantly more likely to agree with statement 3 '*Supervisor/manager gives me opportunity to express my views*' and Arabs are significantly more likely to agree with statement 5 '*Managers try to make job interesting*'.

⁸ Women with caring responsibilities significantly more likely to agree; ii. Women without children significantly more likely to agree; iii Older sample members (≥ 29) significantly more likely to agree; iv. UAE, expatriate workers, non-Arab sub-samples significantly more likely to agree; v. UAE, expatriate workers, non-Arab sub-samples, those without children and women with caring responsibilities significantly more likely to agree; vi. UAE, expatriate workers, non-Arab sub-samples, those without children and younger (< 29) women significantly more likely to agree; vii. Women with caring responsibilities and older sample (≥ 29) members significantly more likely to agree; viii UAE, expatriate sub-samples significantly more likely to agree

Table 7.11: Strength of Agreement with Statements about Work and the Working Environment by Country and Nationality⁹

Agree or not with job feature: Response (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)	Mean score				
	Whole sample	KSA	UAE	Expatriate	Arab
1. Employer shows some concern for me	3.71	3.65	3.76	3.61	3.86
2. Employer is willing to help me in my work when needed	4.21	4.06	4.36	4.31	4.13
3. Supervisor/manager gives me opportunity to express my views	3.59	3.96	3.26	3.2	4.05
4. Supervisor is fair in dealing with me	3.90	3.8	4.0	3.93	3.90
5. Managers try to make job interesting	3.70	3.67	3.74	3.66	3.80
6. Managers available to help when there is a problem	4.07	3.87	4.25	4.18	3.95
7. Feel a strong sense of belonging to this hotel	4.15	3.96	4.33	4.27	4.03
8. Willing to put myself out to help this hotel	4.57	4.37	4.74	4.68	4.43
9. Proud to tell people I work here	4.10	4.08	4.12	4.08	4.14
10. To know that I make a good contribution to this hotel pleases me	3.96	4.31	3.65	3.64	4.34
11. Recommend working here	4.07	3.88	4.24	4.23	3.92
12. Fairly paid considering responsibilities	3.49	3.29	3.67	3.62	3.31
13. Fairly paid compared to employees in other hotels doing similar work	3.35	3.03	3.62	3.60	3.03
14. Have the necessary training to do my job well	3.72	3.66	3.77	3.80	3.66
15. Am supported to learn new skills	3.87	3.64	4.07	4.01	3.74
16. Hard to leave hotel even if I wanted to	3.64	3.53	3.73	3.74	3.52

On the whole the data suggest that the overlapping UAE, expatriate, non-Arab sub-samples are satisfied with more aspects of their work and work environment. Relatedly,

⁹ Women in the UAE, expatriates and non-Arabs are significantly more likely to agree with statements 2, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16. Women in UAE significantly more likely to agree with statement 4. Expatriates more likely to agree with statement 14. Women in Saudi-Arabia, home nationals and Arabs significantly more likely to agree with statement 3. Arabs were significantly more likely to agree with statement 5. (All $p < 0.05$)

wages are also higher in the UAE (Table 4). However, it is difficult to untangle the extent that this finding is attributable to the working environment in UAE in general or because the majority of participants in the UAE are expatriates and also mainly non-Arabs who have presumably made a conscious decision to leave their home countries to come to seek work in the UAE. In the latter case, higher levels of satisfaction may reflect negatively on conditions in their home country rather than positively on the conditions in UAE itself. In order to try and untangle some of these effects we use multivariate analysis. Issues around satisfaction with work and the experience of work more generally were also explored in more depth in the face to face interviews (discussed in the following chapter).

7.4 Multivariate Analysis of Satisfaction with the Experience of Work

To investigate in a little more detail how satisfaction with different aspects of work varied across the sample we used multivariate regression analysis combined with principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. The factor analysis was used to construct four indices or scales of satisfaction with work from the 24 statements in tables 7.10 and 7.11. These were utilised as dependent variables in regression analysis. The independent variables were selected to capture the overlapping sub-samples defined by country and nationality status as well as caring responsibilities and age. In the estimations we additionally included variables to control for marital status, earnings, job role and tenure.

Factor analysis

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy for the 24 statements (variables) in Tables 7.10 and 7.11 (0.828) suggested the data would factor well as 0.8 is considered meritorious (Kaiser, 1974). The Cronbach's alpha scale reliability coefficient (0.88) is also excellent. The rotated factor matrix suggested four factors (accounting for 57.54% of the total variance) having eigenvalues larger than 1.5 (respectively, 7.62, 3.37, 2.83 and 1.51). The rotated four factor solution is shown in Table 6.12 (factor loadings less than 0.5 have been suppressed). No variable has a cross factor loading greater than 0.5 and only one uniqueness value is greater than

0.6 (communality < 0.4).¹⁰ Factor 1 loads positively on 11 items capturing a broad range of positive features with the highest loaded items signifying that sample members find work interesting, have a strong sense of belonging and respect from their colleagues and believe their job is secure. This factor suggests intrinsic satisfaction with work and is called 'Intrinsic Satisfaction'. Factor 2 loads on 7 items, two negatively. The 5 positively rated items are concentrated around the working environment, pay and promotion while the negatively rated items relate to less materialistic concerns. Factor 2 is therefore called 'Pay & Conditions'. Factor 3 loads most highly on the statements relating to management support and is called 'Management Matters'. Factor 4 loads highly on the only 2 items linked explicitly to training and skills and so is called 'Training & Skills'.

Table 7.12: Factor Loadings for Work Satisfaction Statements

Statement (variable)	Factor 1 Intrinsic Satisfaction	Factor 2 Pay & conditions	Factor 3 Management Matters	Factor 4 Training & Skills	Uniqueness
i. My work is very interesting	0.7711				0.311
ii. I like my colleagues	0.6972				0.3993
iii. I am respected by colleagues	0.7460				0.428
iv. There is a healthy environment in my hotel		0.5002			0.5315
v. My work is challenging					0.6191
vi. My salary is good		0.7238			0.2549
vii. My job is secure	0.7527				0.3941
viii. There are promotion opportunities in my hotel		0.6034			0.3657
1. Employer shows some concern for me			0.8038		0.3123
2. Employer is willing to help me in my work when needed			0.7449		0.2851

¹⁰ Uniqueness is the percentage of variance for the variable that is not explained by the common factors (communality = 1-uniqueness). A higher uniqueness value indicates that the variable is not well explained by the factors. Values more than 0.6 are usually considered high.

3. Supervisor/manager gives me opportunity to express my views		- 0.5024	0.7150		0.1787
4. Supervisor is fair in dealing with me			0.7822		0.3171
5. Managers try to make job interesting	0.7725				0.2805
6. Managers available to help when there is a problem	0.6416				0.5172
7. Feel a strong sense of belonging to this hotel	0.7818				0.3005
8. Willing to put myself out to help this hotel					0.5583
9. Proud to tell people I work here	0.6112				0.5286
10. To know that I make a good contribution to this hotel pleases me	0.5740	- 0.6334			0.2468
11. Recommend working here	0.6590				0.4129
12. Fairly paid considering responsibilities		0.6114			0.3911
13. Fairly paid compared to employees in other hotels doing similar work		0.8033			0.2855
14. Have the necessary training to do my job well				0.8560	0.2245
15. Am supported to learn new skills				0.8529	0.1928
16. Hard to leave hotel even if I wanted to	0.5992				0.3476

Notes: Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: orthogonal varimax rotation

To create composite indices of the different facets of satisfaction the overall working experience captured by the four factors we used regression (Thomson) scoring. This process created four new variables that are estimated as weighted sums of the standardised variables where the weights are based on the factor loadings: Intrinsic_Satisfaction, Pay & Conditions, Management and Training & Skills. We could have used Bartlett scoring however the difference between these two methods is reported as being largely a matter of scaling or shifting (Stata Press, 2013:338-9). We could also have simply created composite indices by averaging the scores of variables with high loading items. However we preferred to use the more standard regression

scoring method, which avoids having to make a judgement on the cut-off factor loading value.

Table 7.13 shows mean values for the four new composite variables for key sub-samples. The data show that on the general job satisfaction index only those with caring responsibilities scored significantly higher (compared with non-carers). However, on the Pay & conditions and Training indices the overlapping sub-samples in the UAE, non-Arabs and expatriates were all more likely to score more highly. Women without children also scored more highly on the Training index. However, on the Management index, the overlapping KSA, Arab and home national sub-samples all scored more highly as did women without children and (weakly) non-carers.

Table 7.13: Mean Values of Composite Indices of Satisfaction with Work

Sub-sample Index	KSA	UAE	Arab	Non-Arab	Home National	Expatriate	Children	No children	Carer	Non-carer
1. Intrinsic_Satisfaction	-0.07	0.05	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.09	-0.14	0.03	0.19	-0.10**
2. Pay&Conditions	-0.41	0.32**	-0.36	0.32**	-0.37	0.28**	0.04	-0.01	-0.001	0.0002
3. Management	0.13	-0.10*	0.31	-0.27**	0.28	-0.22**	-0.18	0.04*	-0.10	0.05*
4. Training & Skills	-0.09	0.07*	-0.12	0.10*	-0.12	0.09*	-0.27	0.07**	-0.07	0.04

***, **, * Sub-sample means significantly different in a two-sample t test at 1%, 5%, 10% levels of significance

Multivariate regressions analysis

We used multivariate regressions in order to control simultaneously for individual characteristics and circumstances. In particular we wanted to try and untangle some of the issues caused by overlapping country and nationality sub-samples. To do this we experimented with the inclusion of different dummy variables to differentiate

nationality and country. The best fit and preferred estimation includes two separate dummy variables interacting country and home nationality in KSA (Home_KSA) and UAE (Home_UAE) and an additional dummy variable taking the value 1 for expatriate Arabs (Expatriate_Arab). This means that non-Arab expatriates are the reference category and the effect of this group is captured by the constant term. Table 13 reports the results of the OLS estimation with the dependent variables capturing different aspects of satisfaction with the working experiences of the sample members: Intrinsic_Satisfaction, Pay&Conditions, Management and Training&Skills.

Overall, after controlling for other factors, the regression results confirm that home nationals in KSA are less satisfied with their work but only in relation to their pay and conditions. However, in relation to their satisfaction with managerial aspects they, along with UAE home nationals are more satisfied than non-Arab and non-Arab expatriates. Women with caring responsibilities are marginally more satisfied with the intrinsic value of their work, suggesting perhaps that in order to make work worthwhile it needs to be satisfying. Women with children are no more or less satisfied than those without. While age does not appear to be a factor that is related to satisfaction with work, single (not previously married) women who are of course also younger and less likely to have children, are more satisfied in relation to pay and conditions and managerial aspects suggesting that these aspects of work are particularly important for them.

Perhaps unsurprisingly higher paid women are more satisfied with their work (but not significantly so in relation to managerial aspects). Those with longer tenure appear to be less satisfied with the intrinsic nature of their work but more satisfied with managerial aspects. Job roles appear to be very significantly related to levels of satisfaction. Those in reception are less satisfied in relation to management and training while housekeeping staff are less satisfied with the intrinsic feature of work and in relation to management but more satisfied in respect of their pay and conditions as are women working in restaurants. Back office staff are also more satisfied in terms of their pay and conditions and those in marketing and sales are generally more

satisfied with intrinsic features of their work. However, both back office staff and those in marketing and sales are less satisfied in terms of training and skills.

Table 7.14: OLS Regression Results of Satisfaction with Work

Dependent variable	Factor 1. Intrinsic Satisfaction	Factor 2. Pay & Conditions	Factor 3. Management	Factor 4. Training & Skills
Independent variable				
Home_KSA	-0.16 (-0.36 - 0.037)	-0.20** (-0.39 - -0.018)	0.19* (-0.027 - 0.41)	0.053 (-0.18 - 0.28)
Home_UAE	0.031 (-0.37 - 0.43)	0.33* (-0.050 - 0.70)	0.84*** (0.40 - 1.29)	-0.053 (-0.52 - 0.41)
Expat_Arab	0.38 (-0.11 - 0.87)	-0.054 (-0.51 - 0.40)	1.08*** (0.54 - 1.62)	0.033 (-0.53 - 0.60)
Caring responsibilities	0.16* (-0.011 - 0.32)	-0.045 (-0.20 - 0.11)	0.0024 (-0.18 - 0.19)	-0.058 (-0.25 - 0.13)
Has own children	0.065 (-0.23 - 0.36)	0.14 (-0.14 - 0.42)	-0.043 (-0.37 - 0.28)	-0.13 (-0.47 - 0.21)
Age ≥ 29	-0.059 (-0.30 - 0.18)	0.028 (-0.19 - 0.25)	-0.099 (-0.36 - 0.16)	0.047 (-0.23 - 0.32)
Salary > 4000 SR	0.62*** (0.41 - 0.84)	0.22** (0.022 - 0.42)	0.15 (-0.091 - 0.38)	0.43*** (0.18 - 0.68)
Tenure > 1 year	-0.41*** (-0.64 - -0.19)	0.052 (-0.16 - 0.26)	0.21* (-0.036 - 0.46)	-0.18 (-0.44 - 0.080)
Single	-0.063 (-0.30 - 0.18)	0.20* (-0.021 - 0.43)	0.27** (0.0034 - 0.53)	0.072 (-0.20 - 0.35)
Reception	0.12 (-0.16 - 0.40)	0.17 (-0.092 - 0.43)	-0.57*** (-0.88 - -0.26)	-0.34** (-0.67 - -0.015)
Housekeeping	-0.62*** (-0.90 - -0.33)	1.88*** (1.61 - 2.14)	-0.44*** (-0.75 - -0.12)	-0.0089 (-0.34 - 0.32)
Restaurant	0.25 (-0.085 - 0.59)	0.51*** (0.19 - 0.82)	-0.95*** (-1.33 - -0.58)	0.26 (-0.13 - 0.65)
Marketing	-0.12 (-0.44 - 0.19)	0.43*** (0.14 - 0.73)	-0.017 (-0.37 - 0.33)	-0.44** (-0.80 - -

				0.070)
HR	0.51***	0.26	0.23	-1.18***
	(0.17 - 0.85)	(-0.058 - 0.58)	(-0.15 - 0.61)	(-1.58 - -0.79)
Constant	0.0020	-0.74***	-0.056	0.076
	(-0.34 - 0.34)	(-1.06 - -0.42)	(-0.43 - 0.32)	(-0.32 - 0.47)
Observations	357	357	357	357
R-squared	0.433	0.504	0.306	0.242
F	18.63***	24.61***	10.76***	7.79***

Note:

Reported figures are coefficients. Confidence intervals in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

These results suggest that having family caring responsibilities are not, in general, negatively associated with satisfaction with work and by implication individual work-place wellbeing. In fact, the weakly positive significance of caring responsibilities in relation to intrinsic satisfaction suggests quite the opposite. However, the included indicators of caring do not explicitly capture the intensity of care required or whether or not the individual concerned is having any difficulty balancing her work and family life. To consider more explicitly whether any work-related impacts on an individual's home life effect their satisfaction with and at work we include an additional variable in the estimation to capture such effects: Work-life Problems. This variable takes the value 1 if the individual reports that work has caused issues or difficulties in relation any aspect of her home and family life recorded in Table 7.7 and zero otherwise. The results of this estimation are shown in Table 7.15. Where an individual reports that their work has caused problems in the context of their family and home life job, satisfaction is significantly lower for three of the four indices (but not the Training & Skills index). This suggests that when there are difficulties in managing work-life balance there is a cost in terms of satisfaction with work and by implication individual work-place wellbeing. Given that women with caring responsibilities and women with children were more likely to report that work had caused problems of these kinds, this result has implications for policy interventions that could support such women in work, as well as women more generally e.g. by providing more flexibility in work practices.

Table 7.15: OLS Regression Results Including Impact of Work on Home Life

	Factor 1. Intrinsic_ Satisfaction	Factor 2. Pay& Conditions	Factor 3. Management	Factor 4. Training &Skills
Home_KSA	-0.16	-0.20**	0.20*	0.055
	(-0.35 - 0.041)	(-0.38 - -0.013)	(-0.021 - 0.41)	(-0.17 - 0.28)
Home_UAE	0.035	0.33*	0.85***	-0.052
	(-0.37 - 0.44)	(-0.042 - 0.70)	(0.40 - 1.29)	(-0.52 - 0.41)
Expat_Arab	0.34	-0.12	1.02***	0.014
	(-0.15 - 0.83)	(-0.57 - 0.34)	(0.48 - 1.56)	(-0.55 - 0.58)
Caring responsibilities	0.15*	-0.058	-0.0099	-0.062
	(-0.020 - 0.31)	(-0.21 - 0.096)	(-0.19 - 0.17)	(-0.25 - 0.13)
Has own children	0.096	0.18	-0.0054	-0.12
	(-0.20 - 0.39)	(-0.095 - 0.46)	(-0.33 - 0.32)	(-0.46 - 0.23)
Age ≥ 29	-0.062	0.024	-0.10	0.046
	(-0.30 - 0.17)	(-0.20 - 0.24)	(-0.36 - 0.16)	(-0.23 - 0.32)
Salary > 4000 SR	0.63***	0.23**	0.15	0.43***
	(0.41 - 0.84)	(0.030 - 0.43)	(-0.084 - 0.39)	(0.18 - 0.68)
Tenure > 1 year	-0.41***	0.049	0.21*	-0.18
	(-0.64 - -0.19)	(-0.16 - 0.26)	(-0.038 - 0.46)	(-0.44 - 0.079)
Single	-0.085	0.17	0.24*	0.063
	(-0.33 - 0.16)	(-0.050 - 0.40)	(-0.025 - 0.51)	(-0.22 - 0.34)
Reception	0.13	0.19	-0.55***	-0.34**

	(-0.15 - 0.41)	(-0.076 - 0.45)	(-0.86 - -0.24)	(-0.66 - -0.011)
Housekeeping	-0.62***	1.88***	-0.44***	-0.0089
	(-0.90 - -0.34)	(1.62 - 2.14)	(-0.75 - -0.13)	(-0.34 - 0.32)
Restaurant	0.26	0.52***	-0.95***	0.26
	(-0.078 - 0.60)	(0.20 - 0.83)	(-1.32 - -0.58)	(-0.13 - 0.65)
Marketing	-0.11	0.46***	0.0036	-0.43**
	(-0.42 - 0.21)	(0.16 - 0.75)	(-0.35 - 0.35)	(-0.80 - -0.063)
HR	0.52***	0.28*	0.25	-1.18***
	(0.18 - 0.87)	(-0.037 - 0.60)	(-0.13 - 0.62)	(-1.58 - -0.78)
Work-life problems	-0.16*	-0.21***	-0.19**	-0.065
	(-0.33 - 0.013)	(-0.37 - -0.054)	(-0.38 - -0.007)	(-0.26 - 0.13)
Constant	0.10	-0.61***	0.065	0.12
	(-0.26 - 0.46)	(-0.94 - -0.28)	(-0.33 - 0.46)	(-0.30 - 0.53)
Observations	357	357	357	357
R-squared	0.438	0.514	0.314	0.243
F	17.72***	24.02***	10.41***	7.29***

Notes:

Reported figures are coefficients. Confidence intervals in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Sensitivity tests

We experimented with included additional measures of barriers to work but these were not entirely successful; they tended to reduce the significance of the work-life problems variable or other included variables and were rarely significant. However, when a dummy variable indicating whether or not respondents had problems finding work because salaries were not high enough was included it had a significant negative effect but caused the salary variable to be insignificant, this suggests multicollinearity consistent with these two variables reflecting similar effects i.e. dissatisfaction with

wages. A variable recording whether the respondent reported ‘Difficulties arranging transport to/from work’ (Table 7.6) was negatively significant but only in the estimation for the pay and conditions job satisfaction index, and the inclusion of this variable did not improve the overall fit of the estimation.

Since earnings are shown to be important determinant of three of the four indices of satisfaction with work and the figures in tables 7.4 and 7.5 showed that earnings varied significantly across the sub-samples, there may be indirect wage effects on satisfaction with work. To investigate this, we estimated ordered logit regressions in which the dependent variable was a categorical variable, Salary, that bands earnings into the five categories shown in table 7.16.

Table 7.16: Monthly Salaries

Salary band	Frequency	Sample %
< 2000 SR	16	4.2
2001-4000 SR	240	62.99
40001-6000 SR	94	24.67
6001-8000	15	3.94
≥ 80001	16	4.2

In these estimations all the variables included in the estimations in Table 7.15 are also included as independent variables (with the exception of the salary variable, Salary > 4000 SR). In the second estimation in Table 7.17 we additionally included the four indices of satisfaction with work. The results are shown in Table 7.17.

Table 7.17: Ordered Logit Earnings Estimations

	Estimation (1)	Estimation (2)
Home_KSA	0.85	1.23
	(0.48 - 1.50)	(0.67 - 2.25)
Home_UAE	1.34	1.97
	(0.45 - 3.98)	(0.63 - 6.13)
Expat_Arab	0.0022***	0.0028***
	(0.00037 - 0.014)	(0.00045 - 0.018)
Caring responsibilities	0.70	0.66
	(0.43 - 1.13)	(0.40 - 1.09)
Has own children	0.15***	0.13***
	(0.064 - 0.38)	(0.050 - 0.34)
Age \geq 29	3.57***	3.83***
	(1.81 - 7.04)	(1.89 - 7.77)
Tenure > 1 year	0.72	1.27
	(0.37 - 1.41)	(0.62 - 2.63)
Single	0.47**	0.49**
	(0.25 - 0.87)	(0.25 - 0.97)
Reception	0.77	0.52
	(0.31 - 1.93)	(0.20 - 1.37)
Housekeeping	0.55	0.37
	(0.22 - 1.41)	(0.100 - 1.35)
Restaurant	3.52***	1.06
	(1.40 - 8.84)	(0.36 - 3.14)
Marketing	5.78***	6.04***
	(2.47 - 13.5)	(2.43 - 15.0)
HR	1.91	1.94
	(0.69 - 5.31)	(0.61 - 6.15)
Work-life problems	1.36	1.53
	(0.84 - 2.22)	(0.91 - 2.55)
Intrinsic_Satisfaction	-	2.04***

	-	(1.40 - 2.98)
Pay&Conditions	-	1.51*
	-	(0.99 - 2.31)
Management	-	0.73*
	-	(0.52 - 1.00)
Training&Skills	-	1.78***
	-	(1.30 - 2.44)
Constant cut1	0.0054***	0.0042***
	(0.0014 - 0.021)	(0.00094 - 0.018)
Constant cut2	1.80	1.93
	(0.65 - 5.00)	(0.64 - 5.86)
Constant cut3	17.1***	24.4***
	(5.76 - 50.5)	(7.41 - 80.2)
Constant cut4	38.5***	61.0***
	(12.2 - 121)	(17.3 - 216)
Observations	381	353
Log-likelihood ratio	-296.78	-266.81
Log-likelihood χ^2	191.33***	213.6***
Pseudo R ²	0.2438	0.2859

Notes: Reported figures are odds ratios. Confidence intervals in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

The results in table 7.17 show that when other factors, including tenure and job roles are controlled for, earnings are highest for home nationals in UAE, but not significantly so. However, the earnings of Arab expatriates are significantly lower than those of non-Arab expatriates (the reference group). In line with the figures in Table 7.5, the earnings of women with children are significantly lower than those of women without children suggesting an indirect effect on satisfaction with work through lower wages. This finding is important since women with children were significantly more likely to cite financial difficulties as the reason for working (Table 7. 8). However, caring

responsibilities are not linked to a negative wage premium, nor are work-family life related problems.

Age but not tenure is significantly and positively related to earnings. Single women earn less than married women and women working in marketing and, to lesser extent, women working in restaurants earn a wage premium. In estimation 2 the indices of satisfaction with the intrinsic features of work and training and skills are more strongly and positively significant than the index of satisfaction with pay and conditions. Interestingly the management matters index is weakly but negatively related to earnings. These results suggest that satisfaction with work is linked to pay but not just in a direct way and not in relation to all aspects of the working environment.

7.5 Summary

The analysis of the data from the questionnaire suggests that the experiences of work of this sample of women vary considerably. Overall, the findings suggest that women with children and those with caring responsibilities face most challenges in finding and staying in work and when their work impacts negatively on their family life they also have less satisfying experiences of working. One policy implication is that in order to make better use of the abilities and skills of the female half of the population who are currently under-employed, the governments of both KSA and UAE need to find ways of supporting female workers, particularly those with children and caring responsibilities.

However, while both KSA and UAE are Arab countries and share many features of the Arab cluster characterised in the Globe study, the employment situation for women in in these two countries is very different. The situation is also very different from the perspective of home nationals and expatriate workers and Arabs and non-Arabs as well as for women with/without caring responsibilities and children. For example, women working in the UAE and expatriates were more likely to agree that they were fairly paid and that they had promotion opportunities in their job, they were registered higher satisfaction levels on pay and conditions index of work satisfaction. However, women working in KSA were more likely to be satisfied with the ways they interacted

with their supervisors and management. In relation to barriers to finding work, women in KSA (mainly home nationals) were more likely to identify social attitudes to women working in hotels as a problem, while women in the sample working in UAE, who are mainly expatriates, were more likely to cite family issues as a barrier to employment. This suggests that social attitudes and norms are more important for women trying to find work in KSA but for expatriate women working in UAE, their family context is more important. This may be because they are often forced to leave their family behind in their home country. However, women with caring responsibilities were in general more likely to report that work impacted negatively on their family life. More flexible working practices could help this group of women but such practices will not address all the issues faced by women who want to find and stay in work in these countries.

Previous work experience was highlighted, particularly by expatriates, as an enabler to employment for women in both the UAE and KSA. Employers presumably recognise the value of knowledge and understanding of a specific area of work, and the hotel environment more generally. Women with previous relevant experience may have experienced an advantage over other women and even some men in the hiring process. However, this 'enabler' is a barrier for women seeking their first job.

A majority of the women were familiar with the concept of flexible working, with some already working flexibly in some form within their workplaces. Generally, the female workers were in favour of flexible working and perceived it to be especially beneficial for women with caring responsibilities. However, several women mentioned potentially negative impacts of flexible working on the individual, the work and the hotel. For example, flexible working arrangements may create extra work for managers in organising and managing individuals to allow them to work flexibly, for example through shifts and varied schedules. There was also a view that flexible working may not be feasible in certain types of jobs or for certain types of individuals. For example, some jobs require interaction with other individuals within office working hours.

These patterns of similarity and difference in relation to barriers, enablers, motivation for work and the general experience of work are explored in more depth in the face-to-face interviews. In this part of the research, women working in KSA and UAE, home

national as well as expatriates and women with/without children or caring responsibilities, were interviewed. The findings from the interviews are discussed the following chapter.

Chapter 8

Chapter 8: Enablers, Barriers and the Experience of Work: Analysis based on Interviews with 45 Women Working in KSA and UAE Hotels

8.0 Introduction

This chapter extends the findings discussed in the previous chapter by analysing the data collected through face-to-face interviews with female hotel employees in the UAE and KSA. In total, 45 women were interviewed of whom 20 were from KSA and 25 from the UAE. The interviews involved nationals as well expatriate women from different countries. Most participants (29) were interviewed individually; however, 16 participants were interviewed in groups of either two or three.

The main aim of this part of the research was to provide further insights on the working situation of female employees in the hotel sector in the Gulf States by exploring the participants' experiences and perceptions of work. The diversity within the sample allowed consideration of the differences and similarities in the position and treatment of national and expatriate employees in KSA and the UAE and women with and without caring responsibilities. The inclusion of questions on flexible work practices additionally allowed us to explore the interviewees' perceptions around the potential impact of flexible working practices on their personal and professional lives.

The interviews comprised a common set of questions and were carried out in an informal manner. This allowed the researcher to ask further, probing questions as appropriate. The data collected were analysed within the NVivo software, which helped in the classification of the main themes and sub-themes emerging from the interviews and in the exploration of relationships between particular themes and demographic attributes (e.g. country, nationality and caring roles). However, the initial coding was all done manually using the transcripts from the interviews.

The next session describes the sample and subsequent sections explore the main themes emerging from the interviews. These included: the working environment;

barriers to work and difficulties in work (such as long working hours); employment enablers and flexible work practices. The experiences of women from different countries and cultures (nationals and expatriates) and the particular issues faced by women with caring responsibilities are discussed.

8.1 The Participants

The sample consisted solely of female employees who were working in hotels. The first round of interviews was conducted in Dubai. The questions were open-ended and semi-structured to elicit in-depth detail about the female employees. The main aim of the questions was to explore the female employees' perceptions about their places of work: how they balance their family responsibilities with their professional lives and also their views about flexible working practices. The interviews were subsequently conducted in KSA (in fieldwork in Alkhobar, Dammam, Riyadh, Jeddah) and then in a return visit to UAE (in fieldwork in Dubai and Sharja). However, the majority of the interviews conducted in UAE were conducted in Dubai and while questionnaires were completed in Abu Dhabi no interview participants were recruited. This sampling is to some extent consistent with the concentration of the UAE hotel industry in Dubai which is heavily reliant on the tourism sector to the extent that "some officials have indicated 20-30% of Dubai's GDP is tourism related" (Emirates NBD, 2014:1) as also discussed in Chapter 3 section 3.2.1. In line with this concentration, an initial aim of the research had been to carry out all survey questionnaires and interviews in Dubai. However, to widen the scope of the project the researcher decided to extend the fieldwork in the UAE.












In KSA, eighteen out of the twenty interviewees were nationals; the other two were expatriates. In the UAE, three of the interviewees were nationals, three were expatriates from Arab countries and the rest of the nineteen were expatriates from different countries around the world. The interviews were conducted either on an individual basis or in groups. There were five group interviews with two female employees and another two group interviews conducted with three female employees. Table 8.1 provides details about the characteristics of the participants (all names have been changed to preserve anonymity).

Table 8.1: Participant Data

Interview id & interview type	Pseudo Name	Age	Marital status	Children	Job role	Salary Per Month	National/ International	Country interviewed (country of origin) (location of interview)
1 Individual	Aysh	Over 25	Unmarried	No children	Manager of sales and marketing department	More than 25,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
2 Individual	Hen	Not given	Divorced	One child	Working in maintenance and room service	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
3 Individual	Elano	24	Unmarried	No children	Telephone operator	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
4 Individual	Fah	Not Given	Unmarried	No children	Accountant	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
5 Individual	Mal	26	Unmarried	No children	Assistant in the personnel department	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
6 Group Interview with id 7	Sami	28	Unmarried	No children	Telephone operator	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
7 Group Interview with id 6	Azizi	23	Unmarried	No children	Telephone operator	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
8 Individual	Yos	Not given	Unmarried	No children	Assistant in the personnel department	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
9 Group Interview with id 10	Nor	19	Unmarried	No children	Reservations and operations	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()
10 Group Interview with id 9	Rah	19	Unmarried	No children	Reservations and operations	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	National	KSA (Saudi) ()
11 Individual	Asraa	23	Unmarried	No children	Assistant manager	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi) ()

12 Individual	Han	23	Unmarried	No children	Human resources coordinator	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi)
13 Individual	Amana	27-35	Married	No children	Data entry	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Home national	KSA (Saudi)
14 Individual	Mari	30	Married	One child	Secretary	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab international	KSA (Qatar)
15 Individual	Hann	28	Engaged	No children	Interior designer	More than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab international	KSA (Palestine)
16 Individual	Ran	29	Unmarried	No children	Human resource management	8,000 SR/AED	Arab international	KSA (Syria)
17 Individual	Dali	26	Divorced	One child	Interior designer	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab international	KSA (Jordan)
18 Individual	Kholou	27	Married	One child	Construction engineer-maintenance	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab international	KSA (Palestine)
19 Individual	Norita	43	Married	One child	Architectural designer	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	KSA (Philippines)
20 Individual	Gee	37	Married	One child	Architectural designer	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	KSA (Philippines)
21 Group Interview with id 22	Fatima	26	Unmarried	No children	Data entry	More than 8,000 SR/AED	Home National	UAE (Emirates)
22 Group Interview with id 21	Shamma	26	Unmarried	No children	Data entry	More than 8,000 SR/AED	Home National	UAE (Emirates)
23 Individual	Amal	27	Unmarried	No children	Receptionist	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab International	UAE (Egypt)
24	Sar	22	Unmarried	No children	Hostess	Less than 8,000	Arab International	UAE (Morocco)

Group Interview with ids 25 & 26						SR/AED		
25 Group Interview with 24+26	Ami	25	Unmarried	No children	Hostess	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab International	UAE (Tunisia)
26 Group Interview with ids 24 & 25	Omi	20	Unmarried	No children	Hostess	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab International	UAE (Morocco)
27 Group Interview with ids 28 & 29	San	24	Unmarried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	Arab International	UAE (Morocco)
28 Group Interview with ids 27 & 29	Sohi	27	Unmarried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Korea)
29 Group Interview with ids 27 & 28	Caro	26	Unmarried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (UK)
30 Individual	Lola	30	Unmarried	No children	Guest relations & manager of the hotel restaurant	More than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Italy)
31 Individual	Sofia	30	Married	No children	Guest relations & manager of the hotel restaurant	More than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Spain)
32 Individual	Far	19	Unmarried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Nepal)
33 Group Interview with id 34	<u>Alm</u>	34	Unmarried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines)

34 Group Interview with id 33	Glor	25	Unmar ried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) ()
35 Individual	Ano	27	Unmar ried	No children	Position in the finance department	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) ()
36 Individual	Cilie	37	Unmar ried	No children	Receptionist	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
37 Individual	Claire	30	Unmar ried	No children	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) ()
38 Individual	Dina	Non e	Unmar ried	No children	Receptionist	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
39 Individual	Lain	28	Unmar ried	No children	Receptionist	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippine) ()
40 Individual	Fatti	28	Unmar ried	No children	Business coordinator	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
41 Individual	Han	48	Divorc ed	One child	Administrati ve secretary and personal assistant	More than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
42 Group Interview with id 43	Kate	23	Marrie d	One child	Waitress	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
43 Group Interview with id 42	Sophie	34	Unmar ried	No children	Cashier	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 
44 Individual	Katy	43	Marrie d	Two children	Housekeep er	Less than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines) 

45 Individual	Meme	32	Unmarried	No children	Administrative secretary	More than 8,000 SR/AED	International	UAE (Philippines)
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*1 United Arab Emirates Dirham = 1.02 Saudi Riyal

Sample Characteristics

The sample characteristics summarised in Table 8.1 show that the female participants were working in a variety of positions with different levels of responsibility and seniority. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 48 years. Three of the participants, however, refused to disclose their age. As regards the participants' marital status, thirty-two were single, three were divorced, one was engaged and the rest were married. There were nine female employees with children. Most of the participants' salaries earned less than the average salary 8000 SR/AED (1400 GBP) per month (see chapter 6 section 6.3/ *salary*). The salaries of seven participants were more than 8000 SR/AED (1400 GBP) per month, either because they were managers or because the rate of pay in the UAE is higher than in KSA. However, one of the employees who was responsible for the sales and marketing department in KSA received more than 25,000 SR (4400 GBP) per month.

Type of work and job roles

Job roles, the nature of their work and participants' responsibilities varied greatly within the two countries. In the UAE, the participants mainly held lower level positions such as receptionists and waitresses, some of these positions were as frontline staff and the women came into direct contact with customers. In KSA, employees with more senior positions, but generally in backroom posts were interviewed. These included managers, accountants, interior designers, engineers and architects. For example, Aysh (Home national) one of the KSA employees was the director of sales and marketing and was entrusted with an entire department. She carried a lot of responsibility in her position. She said: *"I have to do all the work for sales and marketing for the whole area. This means I have to make a plan for the sales by reading sales websites and looking for female workers to work with me in the marketing and sales section"* and *"I work in the marketing section but I want to work in HR as well. That's why I'm looking for female workers. I employed some females in the operation*

and now I want to employ some other females in home services and in coordinating and in the banquet". This comment shows how women working in higher positions in KSA can be supportive of women's employment and want to influence and encourage more Saudi women to attain employment. This is useful information for the KSA government i.e. that employing women in senior positions, particularly if they have a Human Resources remit can help to create more opportunities for employing women in the KSA workforce.

Ran (Home national), another of the women in KSA was working as a trainer in a human resources department. She had responsibility for training new employees and enhancing the skills of existing employees in their duties to serve the guests and ensure that they were satisfied with the service. Her role is likely to be particularly important for enhancing the job prospects of female employees although Ran is also providing training to male employees. Han was another participant who worked in human resources as a coordinator in UAE. However, her work seemed more routine and involved mainly drawing up rotas, scheduling interviews and dealing with employees' holiday requests.

In KSA, two of the Arab females worked in the reservations section of the hotel, as backroom staff. They had responsibility for reserving hotel rooms for customers who contacted them via emails or phone calls. They also managed the transportation of guests and made sure that a driver was available to take them to their required destination. They notified customers that reservations had been made and transportation had been arranged for them. They also administered contracts with a few companies who were given discounts and special services at the hotel. Another of the women in KSA had a backroom job entering data received from the front office about the customers. This included their names and passport numbers as well as the check-in and check-out date and time. This information was recorded and treated as highly confidential. In addition, women were responsible for operating the exchange system inside the hotel; They answered and transferred local and international calls for the customers as and connected guests to room service. They also entered sensitive data concerning other employees such as data relating to bonuses, overtime,

loans or any kinds of deductions. Some of the Arab female workers in KSA worked solely in the telephone exchange in relation to customer services, handling incoming and outgoing calls. The work of the women in KSA who worked in the finance office of the hotel included preparing forms and printing invoices (e.g. regarding rent) and obtaining the manager's signature. Some of the international female workers in KSA who were also working in a finance department said that they dealt with suppliers.

There was another group of women in KSA who were working as architectural designers, interior designers and one as a construction engineer. They were involved in the redesign of a hotel that belonged to the [REDACTED] Company, aiming to ensure that changes remained true to the hotel's original style. At 30 years old, the hotel was considered one of the oldest hotels in [REDACTED]. The women were part of a larger team of employees who were working on the foundation, concrete columns and the ceiling of the hotel and also making modifications to various areas of the hotel. These women were not from KSA. There are fewer women in KSA who specialize in engineering due to the lack of job opportunities for Saudi women in the engineering sector. Therefore, hotels tend to hire international workers in engineering positions to fill this gap.

Four of the expatriates in the UAE had frontline, reception duties with the responsibility of dealing with customers. Eight women in UAE worked as waitresses and one worked as a cashier at the hotel (she also helped in the reception if there was a need for extra staff). Some of the women worked only in the restaurant and bar. In UAE, one woman from the Philippines was working as a business coordinator. She was responsible for coordinating with travel agents and hotel management, she also handled large delegations staying at the hotel. In addition, she was responsible for drawing up contracts with the travel agencies and managing the marketing of this side of the hotel business by contacting and working with companies online.

Two of the woman in the UAE were working as secretaries, making flight reservations and arranging their manager's schedule. They also wrote and revised various forms and other paperwork before presenting it to their manager, as well as sometimes

working as an assistant manager, performing duties as the manager required. A few of the international workers in the UAE were working as guest relation managers, having direct responsibility for serving guests, ensuring that they were taken care of and treated well. These women also worked in the marketing section and helped out with the planning and execution of different events at the hotel.

A few international employees from Morocco and Tunisia working in the UAE were employed as hostesses. Their work involved face to face contact with customers and they were responsible for organising events and preparing the halls for conferences. Other women in UAE were working in the housekeeping department and others in maintenance and room service, liaising directly with guests at the hotel regarding their requests or complaints.

8.2 Barriers to Work

The analysis in the previous chapter confirmed that women in Arab society are likely to experience barriers to employment, both in finding employment and while working. This section builds on that evidence by reporting on the barriers discussed by the women who took part in interviews.

Many of the women said that they had found it difficult to find a job in the either in UAE or KSA. For example, for some of the expatriate women it was difficult to attain a work visa for those who needed one:

“I have found it difficult to work here in the Middle East since the beginning. I came with a tourist visa in the beginning, and then when I found this job in the hotel I had to change my visa to an employment visa. It was not easy to find this job in the beginning, as I had to spend a lot of money on taxis to go around and find a job.”
(Alm, expatriate/UAE)

Glor, who was interviewed with Alm, agreed:

“It was very difficult; especially when I tried to get a job I had difficulties with the agency. But I overcame those problems and thankfully this hotel accepted me even though I didn’t have any experience.” (Kate, expatriate/UAE)

This particular difficulty may in part be due to the UAE government's efforts to decrease the number of expatriate workers in the UAE and encourage more nationals to work.

In KSA, employment for women is not really encouraged. There are also particular issues relevant to working in hotels as Saudi women are not encouraged to take on roles that involve interaction with men (an acceptable job would be teaching in girls' schools). This attitude is typical of societies within the Arab cluster, as discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.1.2). The general view within Arab countries is that the Islamic religion does not allow women to interact with men who are not family members. Although Arab societies are becoming somewhat more acceptable of women engaging in employment, it is still considered important to obey the restrictions and regulations set out in the Koran. Therefore, the barrier against women interacting with men who are not within the women's family is an important one that employers and women who want to work have to address in Arab societies. In some hotels these barriers are circumvented by employing women in positions that involve minimal interaction with men, such as administration. Nevertheless, several of the women interviewed stated that it was still difficult for them to gain employment because of society's perception regarding working women, especially in the hotel sector.

"My family objected to the job because I had to deal with males, but currently women have entered all fields of work, which made it easy for me to convince my people that I work at a hotel... Even the guests! When they hear a female's voice answering their phone calls, they are surprised." (Elano, Home national/KSA)

The UAE is not as conservative as KSA regarding women in employment. Although female employment is still not generally encouraged, it is not considered as great an issue as it is in KSA. As discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.1.4), societies in several Arab countries are currently experiencing confusion regarding a desire to be more aligned with the changing world and implement changes and adjustments that remain within the rules imposed by societies' cultural practices and values, to ensure the societies' cultural and religious (in particular) values are not compromised. However, this has proven to be a very difficult task as one of the most predominant changes

within the wider world has been in relation to gender equality and rights for women. In contrast, the UAE and KSA are both Islamic countries and their religious and cultural values do not permit women to engage freely in employment or to interact with men outside their family. However, as evidenced by the results in the previous chapter, Arab women are seeking employment for a variety of reasons that include financial reasons, independence and to utilise their skills and abilities.

Although some of the women interviewed said that their families were not happy with their employment, others stated that their families were supportive of their decision to attain employment.

*"No, thank God my family is understanding and approves of my work at a hotel."
(Fah, Home national/KSA)*

This quote is consistent with the view that although society in both the UAE and KSA is generally averse to women in employment, this perception is perhaps gradually changing. However, it was difficult to determine the reasons why some families support and others disapprove of working women. One possibility is that some of the families that approve are experiencing financial difficulties and 'need' acts to dampen cultural barriers to female employment. However, some women (n=12) interviewed gave financial difficulties as a concern or a reason for working. Another speculation is that the males within the approving families are perhaps younger and/or more educated. As discussed in Chapter 2 (section 2.1.5) research conducted by Elamin and Omair (2010) revealed that single, unemployed, young and educated Saudi males hold more liberal attitudes towards female employment, in comparison to married, employed, older and less educated males.

Several of the women interviewed mentioned that problems with mobility were a barrier to work. In KSA it is difficult for women to arrange for transportation since most of the nationals are not allowed to leave the house alone and must be accompanied by a male family member. Some use taxis but this is very expensive. Mobility is also a barrier for expatriate women. One said:

“I was adjusted already since I’ve been here for a long time, since 2006, but in the beginning everything was different, so it was difficult for me to deal with many things in the culture. But I was able to adjust. Sometimes mobility is a problem for me, so I would count that as one of my difficulties.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

Norita (expatriate/KSA) said that the only problem for her was the transportation, as she had to leave one hour early and stay after work for one hour just to wait for her husband to come because she cannot drive a car in KSA. She said *“The only problem for me is the transportation, as I have to leave one hour early and stay after work for one hour just to wait for my husband to come because I cannot drive a car here in Saudi Arabia.* The UAE is significantly more relaxed in relation to this cultural norm (women are permitted to drive in the UAE) but in KSA this ruling makes it very difficult for women to find employment and stay in a job. Although women in the UAE and KSA experience similar barriers to employment, these kinds of barriers are more prominent in KSA. One of the reasons why there are these differences in the level of acceptance of working women is likely to be that KSA is stricter because it is a central location for Islamic pilgrims and a holy country for Islam.

8.3 Enablers of Employment

8.3.1 Previous Experience

Some of the women (n=4) stated that they were able to find employment because of previous experience in their particular area of work.

“It was easy for me to find a job here in Saudi Arabia because there aren’t a lot of Saudi females working in this area; the majority are working as teachers or nurses instead. Also, it was not difficult for me because I have good experience and I am skilled in my field.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

“It was easy to get a job here because I have a lot of experience.” (Katy, expatriate/UAE)

Alm said:

“In this hotel though, they helped me and after some interviews, they took me because I had experience.” (Alm, expatriate/UAE)

and Glor agreed with her:

“the same”

This suggests that employers may be more willing to employ females if they have previous work experience. Work experience is therefore an enabler to attaining employment in both the UAE and KSA. This implies that employers are able to recognise the importance of previous work experience in the hotel sector and may favour employing a woman with work experience, rather than a man with no relevant work experience. This makes sense of course, since individuals with previous work experience in the hotel sector are familiar with the nature of the business and the job requirements and require less training.

8.3.2 Job Availability, Skills and Contacts

Some of the women interviewed (n=10) said that it was easy to find employment in KSA as it was a new sector for female employment and female workers were needed in hotels:

“Yes, this is my first experience of working. I am a new graduate and joined this job directly after I graduated and I easily got the job. It is really nice to work, especially with the supportive team I am currently working with.” (Yos, Home national/KSA)

It was particularly easy for women workers who had expertise in the fields of construction, maintenance, architecture and design to find a job, as such expertise is in short supply in KSA.

“I am quite at ease working in Saudi Arabia; there is barely any competition from women employees because you can rarely find Saudi women working in such fields.” (Kholou, Home national/KSA)

This seems to suggest that employers are more willing to hire females in some occupations and that this knowledge empowers women. Ultimately, this will increase the rate of female employment in these countries and should help to lower barriers to female employment by changing the perceptions of female workers.

Some of the female workers had good connections in KSA or in the UAE, so this made it easier for them to get a job.

“It was easy because I had some acquaintances who were working here. I got the job within a month and have worked here for a year and half now.” (Hann, Home national/KSA)

“I found the job easily as a friend in Dubai helped me to find this job.” (Ano, expatriate/UAE)

8.4 Motivation to Work

The majority of women in the interviews (n=21) stated that they were very motivated to work and also motivated by their job. The women wanted to work for independence, to socialise and to utilise their skills and abilities. Women do not always work out of necessity, they are ambitious too; they want to progress in their careers and gain recognition. A few indicative responses to questions about motivation to work are:

“I’m happy with my current job because they offer me training courses to improve my skills. Plus, staying at home and doing nothing is boring whereas work gives me chance to gain experience and to socialise. My current job has both flexibility and chances for personal growth.” (Han, Home national/KSA)

“I am very satisfied with my job because I do not like to stay at home and sit idle. I prefer getting to know people and learning new things.” (Elano, Home national/KSA)

“I chose to work to be independent and gain experience and to have some money without taking any help from my family.” (Far, expatriate/UAE)

Some of the expatriate women were motivated to work in the Middle East to have better salaries.

“The salaries are much better here than in our native countries.” (Sofia, expatriate/UAE)

“In Dubai, I get a better salary than in my own country, even though living in Dubai is very expensive.” (Lola, expatriate/UAE)

There were some women who were happy to work in a hotel even though it is a new sector for women to work in in both KSA and the UAE.

“I feel happy, especially after I managed to adapt myself to this new sector.” (Yos, Home national/KSA)

Some of the workers consider working as a service to their country or the host country as they are contributing to the country's resources and increasing its GDP.

“My goal is to serve the country and contribute to its GDP.” (Shamma, Home national/UAE)

“If I was rich I would still work, but I would work in my own country and not the UAE.” (Cilie, expatriate/UAE)

Some of the female employees were supported by their managers and this is one of the reasons why they remained in their jobs, even when they were faced by a high workload and pressure:

“I am very happy about having this job because my boss is very supportive.” (Ano, expatriate/UAE)

Some women were motivated to work so they could study and be independent:

“Eight years ago, I could not even think of working because of this closed minded society; although I always wanted to pursue my studies, but could not due to financial constraints. Now I spend all the money I earn on my studies. I am gaining

experience and earning too, and I am also able to pursue my studies.” (Hen, Home national/KSA)

8.5 The Experience of Work

The working environment in the UAE and KSA is very different from the working environment in Western countries, such as the UK. This was supported by the expatriate women from western countries in the sample who pointed out that their current working environment was very different from the working environment they had experienced in their home countries. This is clearly articulated by Carol, a UK expatriate interviewee working in the UAE, who said:

“I think working here is totally different from working in the UK.” (Carol, expatriate/UAE)

Her words reflect how the business culture and the associated employment relations are very different in Arab countries compared with many other parts of the world. Several women said they find it difficult to adjust to this type of working environment, especially those from Western countries, as it does not promote employee rights, women's in particular. Women from Western countries, where equal opportunities and expectations about job satisfaction are more embedded within the working environment, may find it very difficult to come to terms with working in a male dominated society that does not really support the idea of employee rights. Businesses in countries within the Arab cluster also tend to operate on the basis of employment hierarchy, where the superiors hold significant power and authority over the subordinates. This aspect of the business culture within the Arab societies will contribute to making it difficult for some expatriate women to adjust to the working environment. This is consistent with there being a high power distance within the working environment (Table 2.1 Chapter 2).

8.5.1 Long Working Hours

One aspect of the working environment that many women (n=14) expressed their dissatisfaction with was the number of hours they are required to work, especially when

this is unpaid overtime. For example, Carol identified long working hours as one important differences between her experience of work in the UK and in UAE:

“Like, we cannot work the hours. There are a lot more hours in working here than in the UK, so it is very hard.” (Carol, expatriate/UAE)

Lola, another European concurs:

“I did have a lot of difficulties during my job...when I came here I found it difficult as I was working more hours than in Europe and here there is a lot of overtime that is not paid, so of course I was not happy. I was especially unhappy because in the interview I had been told that I would get paid for the overtime but I didn’t and when working 6 days a week it is not easy to manage my personal responsibilities.” (Lola, expatriate/UAE)

Carol, Sana and Sohi (expatriates, UAE) agreed that: *“the most challenging thing in working in this hotel is the long working hours.”*

Long hours will make it very difficult for women employees to create a balance between their personal and working lives, especially women with caring responsibilities particularly if they are unable to plan ahead.

“Since I’ve been in Dubai though, I have had some difficulties in balancing work and life because of the working hours and because of living in Dubai, which is so far away from my own country.” (Sofia, expatriate/UAE)

Long hours appear to a feature of the working culture within the UAE and KSA. Some of the women struggled to manage their work and personal lives, which is likely to create stress and anxiety as Cillie from UAE (expatriate) said *“Flexible working could improve my life because I could improve my relationship with my boyfriend and improve my personal life. My long hours now have made difficult”*. From the comments of the participants it appears that their employers were not concerned with employees’ personal wellbeing and job satisfaction. This attitude to employee welfare could be part of the hierarchical structure of work. It does not seem to be because there is an excess

supply of labour, that a workforce-in-waiting is readily available should an employee decide to leave, or that recruitment and training costs are low.

In line with the view that there is a high power distance within the working environment (Table 2.1 Chapter 2) individuals in positions of power within organisations in the UAE and KSA arguably exert what could be considered coercive power over their subordinates. Lola from UAE (expatriate) was complained or refused to work overtime. She said *“I came here I found it difficult as I was working more hours than in Europe and here there is a lot of overtime that is not paid, so of course I was not happy. I was especially unhappy because in the interview I had been told that I would get paid for the overtime but I didn’t and when working 6 days a week it is not easy to manage your personal responsibilities”*. They therefore continued to work without expecting or receiving extra pay.

This fear that they could say something that might have a negative impact on their employment was evidenced by both Kate and Sophie from UAE (expatriates) who when asked about their satisfaction with the working environment, said that they were having some difficulties but they were reluctant to divulge any details.

Control over employees can be achieved by threatening them with consequences if they do not perform to a certain standard or perform certain tasks. This can cause stress and anxiety for employees especially perhaps for expatriate employees who are away from home, their family and friends. The loss of a job may have detrimental consequences on an individual’s own welfare and also the welfare of their family in their home country. Often, expatriate women also have financial responsibilities for adults and/or children in their home country: *“I am not married, but I have caring responsibilities for my parents so I can take care of them by sending money to them each month as the oldest child”*. Some of the expatriate women also had caring responsibilities for adults and/or children who are living with them in the UAE or KSA. These women face particularly risks in relation to job loss and may also find it hard to find a new job in the host country.

As in the sample of women who completed the questionnaires, the majority of the female employees in the UAE were expatriates and they seemed to face particular difficulties finding work and in work compared to female employees in KSA who were mostly nationals. Discrimination on grounds of race or nationality may have been an additional factor but there was no direct evidence of this. However, the situation of expatriate women was very different from that of nationals in one important respect namely that, in most cases, their family was financially dependent on them. This made them feel particularly vulnerable to the risk of losing their job

8.5.2 Cultural Constraints and Differences

As already noted, expatriate women working in the UAE and KSA can find it difficult to adjust to their new lifestyle and consequently feel homesick:

“The only difficulties for me are homesickness and adjusting to the different lifestyle here and respecting the rules.” (Sophie, expatriate/UAE)

“Life in the Philippines is much easier than here, as here there are a lot of instructions. This makes it very hard. Being away from my relatives is hard as well. I have to work here a lot in Saudi Arabia because I’m looking after my mom and my dad by sending them money.” (Norita, expatriate/KSA)

Some expatriate women travel to countries such as the UAE and KSA to find employment in order to send money to their family in their home country. There are several reasons why they come to the Gulf States to find employment such as a higher number of work opportunities in the UAE and KSA and the strength of the currencies against their home currencies. These women may have to leave their children in their home country and when they arrive in UAE or KSA they do not have any friends or family, which would all accentuate feelings of loneliness and make it harder to adjust to the new lifestyle. However, there are also expatriate women who do not find it particularly difficult to adjust to the UAE working environment and lifestyle, for example for Arab expatriates the new culture is the same or similar to that of their home country as Amira (Arab. International) from UAE said that *“it was difficult because of the cultural differences between the two countries, although the differences are only minor”*.

However, not all of the expatriate women suffered because of cultural differences. One of the interviewees thought that working in the Middle East was much easier than working in her native country.

“Actually working here in Saudi Arabia is much easier than working in the Philippines because in the Philippines you have to work both indoors and outdoors. You cannot work everywhere in KSA as there are some restrictions for women workers. Women in Saudi Arabia work only indoors, not outdoors. Women in Saudi Arabia usually do not work with men either. That is why we are working here in the hotel inside the offices.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

Another said:

“I was very happy to have a job here in Dubai. Actually, it was my dream to work in the Middle East, even though many people in my country were shocked by my decision and thought it would be difficult for me to adjust. I am so happy here and I have so many friends from the Middle East.” (Sohi, expatriate/UAE)

However, the strict customs that apply to women in the UAE and KSA often cause adjustment difficulties. As previously mentioned, women are still not allowed to drive in KSA, which means that women who are used to being able to travel independently can struggle to adjust. The generally negative perception of women working in the hotel sector also makes causes difficulties for both expatriate and home national women:

“Yes, some people think poorly about the women who are working in hotels because they don’t know what the hotel industry does.” (Claire, expatriate/UAE)

“The biggest problem is the way people look at the hotel business. Some see it as respectful, others as disgraceful; I myself used to look down upon girls who work at hotels, but now I have completely changed my mind.” (Ran, Home national/KSA)

Countries in the Arab cluster are said to be highly collectivist societies (as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.1.2). Within these societies there is said to be strong interdependence between family members, the extended family and close friends. This would suggest that the family's perceptions and opinions regarding an individual and/or an institution hold significant sway for members of the family group. It might therefore be expected that women who want to work would also want the family group to accept this decision and approve of the sector and/or the institution where she chooses to work. This potentially narrows the scope for employment. One of the reasons that the hotel sector is perceived negatively within Arab culture is due to its very nature: there are strangers coming to stay at a place during the night. This appears to create a very vulnerable workplace for female workers and, therefore, society can tend to have a negative view of women working in this sector, which will deter some women from working in hotels. However, since all the women in the sample were working in hotels we cannot really explore this possibility. Further research is needed possibly with women working in other sectors.

8.5.3 Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction with the Working Experience

The interviewees were asked to rate their job satisfaction on a scale of one to ten and there were a range of responses. A large minority of the women interviewed (n=16) stated that they were generally satisfied with their job at the hotel. A range of positive features were highlighted ranging from the management, the nature of the job itself and colleagues:

"To tell you the truth, the management is very supportive. Initially, the working hours were from nine to five; I asked them to give me flexible working hours as I have a very small kid. The manager was very understanding. I do not care about some other trivial negative points; it is enough that I have nice and supportive superiors." (Dali, Home national/KSA)

"A ten out of ten! I find everything satisfying: the owner, the flexibility and my own personal achievements. I work here with flexibility and I am quite satisfied because it is important to feel relaxed in order to be creative." (Hann, Home national/KSA)

"I say an eight out of ten, but I'm happy with my job because I like the people here and I like the environment too." (Claire, expatriate/UAE)

"I worked a lot before, but this hotel is better than any other places that I have worked before." (Mal, Home national/KSA)

These participants clearly felt that they were working in a friendly and supportive environment and with good management; however, there were some women who were perhaps less satisfied than they might otherwise have been because of their salaries, which they thought were low:

"I would rate a seven out of ten because they give a low salary for such a stressful job. But I am satisfied with the working environment." (Dinal, expatriate/UAE)

Salary is clearly important, particularly for those with caregiving responsibilities:

"I like my job here! I would say an eight, because I have a child and I have a responsibility towards him I need a good salary too as I am a single mother." (Alm, expatriate/UAE)

There were also women who gave a relatively low satisfaction rating for a variety of reasons. For example:

"I would rate it a six out of ten because I was moved from my private office to an open hall in the reception because of some current modifications in the hotel. This is very confining." (Elano, Home-national/KSA)

"I would rate it a seven out of ten because I sometimes get into an argument with my manager as he does not take my view into consideration when making any decision." (Kholou, Home national/KSA)

For Elano the reasons for her satisfaction were structural but Kholou clearly had issues with the management in her hotel like having a different opinion with her colleagues related to the team work.

8.6 Work and Caring Responsibilities

8.6.1 Expatriate Women with Caring Responsibilities in their Home Countries

Some of the expatriate women (n=19) did not have caring responsibilities in the country in which they were working i.e. they were not giving practical, everyday care for children and/or adults. Other family members were generally caring for their children and/or adults while the expatriate women worked in the UAE or KSA.

“I faced some difficulties when I first made the decision to work in Dubai especially because I have children; one of them is six and the other is three years. They are both in my country now, but I think this is ok for me because my mother is taking care of them.” (Cilie, expatriate/UAE)

“My mother takes care of my kid while I’m at work. This helps me to keep balance.” (Dali, Home national/KSA)

“I have two children, but they are in the Philippines. They are not young though.” (Katy, expatriate/UAE)

However, a majority of the expatriate women had financial responsibilities for children and/or adults in their home country and sent money home to their families:

“I want to work for my family and I have a child, so I have to work for the future of my boy. He is 5 years old, but my sister takes care of my child”. (Kate/expatriates, UAE)

“I have young brothers and sisters in my home country that I take care of by sending them money each month” (Fatti/expatriates, UAE)

8.6.2 Women with Caring Responsibilities in KSA/UAE

However, some working women (n=9) did have caring responsibilities in their country in which they were working, which for home nationals was of course their home country. One of these woman said she worked *because* of her caring responsibilities for her child:

“I have caring responsibilities. I have to earn enough money for the sake of my kid” (Hen, KSA)

These working women are concerned about how their caring responsibilities could influence their job performance:

“I leave my 2-year-old kid for eight hours a day... a long time, but I’m trying to keep balance, because my caring responsibilities may affect my work.” (Dali, Home national/KSA)

Women are also concerned about their work having an influence on their ability to manage their caring responsibilities and on the person being cared for. Some of the women had applied practical solutions to manage their caring responsibilities by bringing their family member(s) with them to take care of children:

“Since I have a child, I had to find a solution for while I’m working, so I brought my mother from my country to help me.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

Long working hours can be particularly problematic for women with caring responsibilities.

“What makes things difficult is that I work for long hours, while I have a kid. I’m trying to keep balance” (Mari, Home national/KSA)

Some of the home national women like Ran from KSA had a range of caring and financial responsibilities for family members:

“I take care of my mother and I sustain my brother who studies abroad and I pay his fees”

Similarly, Aysh (Home national) from KSA said “ *I take care of my father and my mother”*

8.7 Views on Flexible Working Practices

8.7.1 Advantages of Flexible Working

In the interviews, flexible working was discussed as a possible solution to women's conflict between working and managing their caring responsibilities.

"Although abilities differ from one woman to another, it is generally difficult for women to work with caring responsibilities. But I think having flexible working conditions will be quite helpful." (Yos, Home national/KSA)

This comment is indicative of how some women found it difficult to manage their work and home responsibilities. For such women, flexible working opportunities may be able to assist in managing their work-home conflicts. As explored in Chapter 2, an inability to manage home and work responsibilities, and an imbalance in work and home life, may induce stress and anxiety, which leads to dissatisfaction with work, low morale and low job performance. More generally, women with caring responsibilities are likely to be more reluctant to seek employment, as caring for children and/or adults occupies considerable time. With flexible working options, such as part-time work, these women may be able to work without compromising their caring responsibilities.

"Flexible working is a very good idea for women to have balance between work and life and it is good for disabled people, and it is also good for the women who her family prevent her from work outside the house." (Nor, Home national/KSA)

The view that flexible working would be particularly beneficial for women with caring responsibilities – children and/or adults – was highlighted by several (n=27) women:

"I like the idea of flexible working and I think there are some good advantages of flexibility, especially for women who have a family or who are taking care of one of the family members or children. I like part time or flexitime. Both are good for the people who have families or small children or disabled people, since they can schedule according to their availability." (Claire, expatriate/UAE)

"But there are some advantages of flexible working. It is good especially for moms. If they have flexitime, they can create their schedule the way that they need, so

they can come home early and look after their responsibilities and serve the family at home.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

These comments indicate that women recognise the difficulties working women with caring responsibilities face and think it is important to address these difficulties. Many working women struggle to fulfil both their work and home responsibilities and, therefore, experience an imbalance in their life.

Some of the interviewees (n=7) mentioned the advantages of flexible working for women who were also studying.

“It has many advantages. It facilitates life for people who need to work, but have caring responsibilities. It also helps girls who want to pursue their studies and those in charge at work will for sure like it that employees improve.” (Fah, Home national/KSA)

Women who are studying are likely to find it difficult to create a balance between their work and education. Therefore, flexible working would be beneficial for these women as work shifts could be arranged depending on class timings. The provision of flexible working may also encourage women to undertake education or further training to develop their knowledge and skills, further enhancing their job prospects.

One interviewee suggested that the availability of flexible working could also help to convince family members, including husbands, of the benefits of allowing women to work.

“It’s great and should be applied here in Saudi Arabia. A lot of women choose to retire early only because of family responsibilities although they need the money. It’s difficult for a mother to leave her kids with anyone. Flexible work solves the problem of a large number of women who want to work, but their husbands refuse.” (Hen, Home national/KSA)

This is an interesting point, suggesting that flexible working may also act as enabler in terms of access to work as well as an enabler helping women to stay in employment.

8.7.2 Disadvantages of Flexible Working

Although most of the women interviewed agreed that there were several advantages of flexible working, some also mentioned its disadvantages (n=24). One disadvantage was that working on a flexitime basis, starting work at a later time simply means finishing work later.

“The disadvantage of flexible working is that you’ll finish late if you start late, but I don’t know more about that.” (Meme, expatriate/UAE)

This could still benefit women who need time during the day for their caring responsibilities. However, this also means that these women will return home later in the evening. Although this may be beneficial for women in certain situations, it may cause problems for others. For example, some women would not be home to welcome their husbands as they come back home from work, which may be an issue in some households.

There was not a blanket agreement with all flexible working practices:

“I think flexible working is a good idea, like part time. Here in the hotel we have flexible work options like shifting. We are working nine hours every day, which is too much. If I could work part time it would be much better.” (Alm, expatriate/UAE)

Some kinds of flexible working may also be more appropriate for the hotel sector such as shift or part-time working, but other practices may be less appropriate. This point was made in relation to type of job and occupations. For example, part-time or flexitime work may be appropriate for some employees whereas working from home is less likely to be appropriate:

“For some professions it would be ok, like for secretaries, but for engineering I don’t think it will be good.” (Norita, expatriate/KSA)

There are many different job roles and professions in hotel work including administration and office work, housekeeping, portering, front desk/reception etc. Working from home is a way of allowing women to perform their work duties without

the need to travel to a place of work. However, this may be difficult to achieve within the hotel sector due to the nature of the business. Most of the positions within a hotel require interaction with guests and providing a service to them. It may be possible to perform certain administrative tasks from home; work involved in administration could be performed from home. However, while housekeeping staff can work on a part-time basis they cannot work from home. However, there are no job roles that can be practically performed at home in their entirety, unlike in other spheres of employment, for example sewing, writing and tutoring, where working from home is a practical, flexible option.

Flexible working would also cause problems in job roles that require interaction with individuals in other jobs both internally and externally.

“...if I kept on being late this would affect my work, especially that we are a network of designers and we have to work together and get feedback. Imagine if each designer sets her own schedule regardless of the others!” (Hann, Home national/KSA)

Although it may be generally possible for a designer to work from home or on a part-time basis, the work requires interaction with others within and outside the hotel. Therefore, it may be necessary for these individuals to work during normal office hours, to enable them to set up meetings and interact with colleagues and other people.

One of the interviewees did not support flexible working in the hotel sector for a different reason:

“I don’t think that in the hotel industry we have to apply more flexibility because the working area is so busy. You cannot work flexibly. If we all did then it would negatively affect the hotel. You should just be more organised.” (Claire, expatriate/UAE)

Claire has the opinion that flexible working should not be applied within the hotel sector, because the hotel environment is too busy. Flexibility in working would have a negative impact on the hotel and it is more important for the business to be organised.

Claire demonstrates that some employees have wider concerns about the running of the hotel as their place of work.

It was also mentioned that flexible working may cause difficulties for individuals with certain personalities and traits:

“But I think the flexible work lacks punctuality although I work in a flexible job. I hate imprecision. I put myself a schedule...” (Hann, Home national/KSA)

Individuals who prefer strict regimes and schedules within their lives may not thrive under flexible working conditions. Such individuals may be uncomfortable with changes in work schedules and/or the location of work.

One of the interviewees mentioned a more practical problem to working flexibly:

“I like the idea of flexible working, but it depends. For example, I’m working for money so if I work a part-time job I will not have enough money.” (Katy, expatriate/UAE)

This is an important point. Some women may prefer to work flexibly but are unable to do so for practical reasons, such as financial difficulties. Regardless of whether these women have caring responsibilities or not, working on a part-time basis means a lower income and so may not be what they want to do.

8.7.3 Negative Perspectives of Working from Home

Some of the women interviewed stated that working from home is not an effective form of flexible working, as it does not allow them to develop experience. This refers to the experience of interacting with others and being in a working environment.

“I prefer part time and I dislike working from home because you cannot grow your experience while working at home.” (Far, expatriate/UAE)

“I have heard about flexible working. I know that it offers something like flexitime and working from home. In fact, I don’t like the idea of working from home. It would be difficult for me, as if I’m at home I would be thinking about my caring

responsibilities, like cooking and laundering, so it would be hard to focus on my work.” (Gee, expatriate/KSA)

“As for working from home, I don’t think it is good enough, because the woman lacks concentration while working from home.” (Mari, expatriate/KSA)

The interviewees indicate that it would be difficult for them to focus on their work if they were working from home. They would be distracted by their caring responsibilities, such as caring for adults, children and the home. Not being able to interact with other people, not being able to leave their homes every day and socialise were other were all factors mentioned as disadvantages of working from home.

8.8 Comparative Analysis

This section tries to address limitations of the analysis linked to the fact that sub-samples of interviewees as the sample of questionnaire respondents were overlapping. Specifically, the home nationals and Arabs are overrepresented in the Saudi sub-sample while expatriates and non-Arabs are overrepresented in the UAE sub-sample (see chapter 7, figure 7.1). To do this, this section analyses the two national sub-samples separately and attempts to draw out similarities and differences between Arab nationals and expatriate women within the context of one country. In particular, the analysis considers whether there are differences in the challenges and barriers to employment experienced by Arab nationals and expatriates. The differences that are identified appear to be attributed mainly to different cultural values and expectations, and differences in the working environments between the two groups and between the two countries.

8.8.1 Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in KSA

Table 8.2 summarises the main differences and similarities between national and expatriate interviewees in KSA although it should be noted that the number of expatriate women interviewed in KSA was very small (n=2). The comparisons were made in relation to specific areas including reasons for working, whether their marital status had/would affect their decision to work, how easy/difficult it was for them to find

a job, the problems they faced in their workplace, their opinions about flexible working hours, their caring responsibilities and how these could affect their work.

Table 8.2: Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in KSA: illustrative responses and perspectives

	National (n=18)	Expatriate (n=2)
Reasons for working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interesting work in hotel industry • Independence • Utilise knowledge • Socialise 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be independent
Marital status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 women were unmarried (single or divorced) and some of this sub-sample said they would be likely to stop working after marriage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both married and their husbands were in KSA
Easy or difficult to find job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally very easy e.g. one said that the hotel asked her to work for them and another had secured the job through her father 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easy to find work due to experience in the field • Difficult even though it was thought there should be work for women because there are not many working women in KSA
Difficulties in workplace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In general there were no difficulties finding work • For a minority the family did not approve and it was also highlighted that society has negative perceptions of working women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulties adjusting to new working environment in the beginning, but had become used to it now • Working in KSA thought easier than working in the Philippines; even though the working environment is different

Caring responsibilities	A mix including <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Responsibilities for mother and/or father One or more children No caring responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One of the women had a child who was looked after by her mother The other had a 10-year-old daughter
Influence of work on caring responsibilities	A mix including <ul style="list-style-type: none"> No influence as for e.g. their parents were in another city Difficulty managing caring responsibilities e.g. need to adjust working hours 	Not a lot of influence because <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mother looks after the child Child is fairly independent
Views on flexible working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In general, flexible working was thought to be a very good or good idea There was a preference for working during day and this was thought to be better for women in general One woman who had worked part time did not like it; thought flexitime a better option 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Certain types of flexible working were thought to be good and should be available e.g. part time working Work from home thought not to be practical Could become difficult to manage
Disadvantages of flexible working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Part time may not give sufficient work experience May be misused by some people Has to be managed properly to avoid staff shortages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of direct communication, between other employees and management an issue if 'working from home'
Advantages of flexible working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beneficial for some women as enables more balance between work and family life Gives more freedom to women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ability to create balance in work and family life Working from home flexible working and especially helpful for working mothers

Views on flexible working in hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority were positive and thought it should be available • Some types of flexible working were thought to be appropriate for hotels, but not all 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only certain types appropriate and this could also depend on the individual • Very helpful for working mothers.
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Both the Arabic and expatriate women say they are seeking employment for similar reasons, related to independence. Both expatriate women were married and living in KSA with their husbands. The marital status of the Arabic women was mixed: married, unmarried or divorced. Some of those who were single said they did not intend to continue working once they were married:

“I think when I get married, especially when I have children, it will be difficult to manage my personal life with my work.” (Yos, Home national/KSA)

“It is difficult to work after getting married because my work is for long hours and sometimes I have to leave for work very early in the morning and stay longer in the evening.” (Sara, expatriate/UAE)

Finding employment had apparently been fairly easy for the majority of the women but of course this is a selected sample of women in work. However, one of the expatriate women said she had experienced some difficulty in finding a job. Previous job experience was noted as an enabler to employment for both the Arab and expatriate women. Experience may be a reason for employers to choose women over men for certain positions during the selection process.

The main difficulties related to working noted by Arab women were family and social disapproval of women participating in the workforce. However, not all the women had these concerns. It is not clear why some Arab families do not express concerns regarding women gaining employment and others disapprove. Different circumstances related to educational background, cultural exposure, family status in society and/or financial need may all have an impact. However, when asked, none of the Arab women highlighted financial difficulties as a reason for attaining employment.

A majority of the Arab women said they did not experience difficulties in their workplace. However, both expatriate women said that they found it difficult to adjust to and they experienced difficulties adjusting to a male dominated culture and working environment. They said that the working environment was very different in comparison to their home country:

“Life in the Philippines is much easier than here, as here there are a lot of restrictions. This makes it very hard to adjust... being away from my relatives is hard as well. I have to work here a lot in Saudi Arabia because I am looking after my mom and my dad by sending them money every month.” (Norita, expatriate/KSA)

Norita also said:

“The only problem for me is the transportation, as I have to leave one hour early and stay after work for one hour just to wait for my husband to come because I cannot drive a car here in Saudi Arabia.” (Norita, expatriate/KSA)

In general, the Arab women did not voice concerns regarding the differences between the treatment of men and women in the working environment. One reason may be that Arab women experience different treatment throughout their lives and are therefore used to a male-dominated society. In contrast, the expatriate women found it difficult to accept that men were treated differently from women in the workplace.

Summary

The two expatriates reported in this KSA sub-sample said that had experienced difficulties in adjusting to the cultural norms of KSA. Its rigid laws, such as those requiring females to be accompanied by males and banning women from driving, create difficulties for female employees. Expatriate women were not used to the kind of direct discrimination between men and women that is normalised in many Arab countries where men often dominate in the workplace and expect women to obey them without question. That these social rules and norms were commented on by the expatriate women is not surprising as they were unlikely to be used to such strict laws

in their own countries. Nevertheless, while most Arab nationals are accustomed to these kinds of laws, they can still create problems for working women for example when they do not have a male family member available to suit their working hours. A related issue was that the expatriates were accustomed to receiving employees' basic rights and recompense for overtime. However, in KSA, such rights are not the norm and this is a source of de-motivation for them and may have lowered their commitment to work and their job satisfaction.

8.8.2 Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in the UAE

The nationals and expatriates in the UAE sub-sample were compared on criteria such as their reasons for working, whether their marital status affected their decision to work, how easy/difficult it was for them to find a job, the problems they faced in their workplace, their opinion about flexible working hours and their caring responsibilities, and how these affected their work. The similarities and differences in their responses are summarised in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Comparison of Arab and Expatriate Female Employees in the UAE: illustrative responses and perspectives

	National (n=3)	Expatriate (n=22)
Reasons for working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Financial reasons Independence To utilise skills and independence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independence Financial reasons
Marriage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All unmarried 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 21 women unmarried
Easy or difficult to find job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In general easy or fairly easy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In general, it was easy A minority referred to some difficulties e.g. due to no experience of working in the hotel sector

Difficulties in workplace	A mix including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No difficulties • The need to prove myself • Society's negative perception of working women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulty adjusting to the working environment e.g. rules and practices • Difficulties due to differences in working environment in UAE and home country
Opinion on flexible working	Two were positive but one said she wasn't sure if flexible working was appropriate for hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In general positive and should be available in hotels • Part time thought a good idea • Better for certain people
Caring responsibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three of them had children
Influence of work on caring responsibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None 	A mix including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No influence • Some issues but needed to work for financial reasons
Advantages of flexible working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good for women with household/family responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to choose hours
Disadvantages of flexible working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No disadvantages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No disadvantages
Flexible working in hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In general positive views and thought that this should be available 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good idea, particularly for women with children • Could not be applied in all positions

Table 8.3 summarises the responses of the UAE sub-sample. This sub-sample is the inverse of the Saudi sub-sample in that there are very few nationals and the majority are expatriates. The national sub-sample in the UAE participate in employment due to financial difficulties, to gain independence and to utilise their skills and abilities. The expatriate women said they were working work because of financial difficulties or for independence. A majority of women in both sub-samples are unmarried and did not have any caring responsibilities – either for children or adults. Most of the women,

national and expatriates said they found it easy to gain employment in the hotel sector. However, some of the expatriate women mentioned difficulties in finding employment due to lack of relevant experience in the hotel sector.

When asked whether the interviewees' had or were experiencing any difficulties in their employment, national women mentioned difficulties dealing with society's negative perception of working women, and also the need to prove themselves in the workplace. A majority of expatriate women said they had difficulties in adjusting to the new country and the different working environment.

"I did have a lot of difficulties during my job...when I came here I found it difficult as I was working more hours than in Europe and here there is a lot of overtime that is not paid, so of course I was not happy. I was especially unhappy because in the interview I had been told that I would get paid for the overtime but I didn't and when working six days a week it is not easy to manage your personal responsibilities."
(Lola, expatriate/UAE)

"The only difficulties for me are homesickness and adjusting to the different lifestyle here and respecting the rules." (Sophie, expatriate/UAE)

In both sub-samples the participants thought that flexible working was a good idea and should be implemented in the hotel sector in the UAE. Flexible working was thought to be particularly advantageous for women with children and household/family responsibilities, as it would allow them the flexibility to choose and/or adjust their working hours. However, there was also recognition that certain types of flexible working may not be suitable for all jobs in hotels.

Summary

The UAE is one of the most prosperous countries in the world, and people of all nationalities work there. Many expatriates come to the UAE to find jobs in order to become financially secure; this was the case with most of the participants in this research. These women usually had family responsibilities but had, nevertheless, migrated to the UAE to find well-paid employment and/or to gain independence.

However, since laws in the UAE promote jobs for nationals and hence, it can be difficult for expatriates to secure employment especially when they do have relevant experience.

The UAE is an Islamic state but its culture is more relaxed than in other Islamic states including KSA. Consequently, expatriates may struggle less to adjust to the cultural norms in the UAE. Nevertheless, while, both expatriates and nationals said that they struggled with long working hours, only expatriates commented on problems with working overtime without recompense. Some of the expatriates, particularly the waitresses and receptionists, appeared to be overburdened by their work most of the time and they were not given additional pay for their work, which appeared to decrease their morale and job satisfaction.

8.9 Overall Country Comparison

There are a larger number of expatriate women working in the UAE (Grant et al., 2007; UAE Economy, 2007) in comparison to KSA. This is reflected in the sample and is due in part to the rigid Saudisation law of KSA, which is designed to increase the number of national women in employment. Expatriate female employees may also prefer to work in the UAE as the culture and laws are more relaxed.

A majority of interviewees in KSA expressed concerns regarding their family and society's disapproval of women gaining employment, especially in the hotel sector. In comparison, only a minority of interviewees in the UAE mentioned the same concerns. This reflects the social context in the UAE where employment among women is generally acceptable and there are no particular concerns regarding the hotel sector.

"My family objected to the job because I had to deal with males, but currently women have entered all fields of work, which made it easy for me to convince my people that I work at a hotel... Even the guests! When they hear a female's voice answering their phone calls, they are surprised." (Elano, Home national/KSA)

“The biggest problem is the way people look at the hotel business. Some see it as respectful, others as disgraceful; I myself used to look down upon girls who work at hotels, but now I have completely changed my mind.” (Ran, Home national/KSA)

In line with these differences, a majority of the unmarried, national working women in KSA said that they did not intend to continue working once they were married. In contrast, while a majority of working women in the UAE were unmarried they did not express any particular concerns regarding discontinuing employment once they were married.

One interesting difference between the sub-samples in the two countries is that although KSA appears to be more conservative regarding women’s role as the main carer in the household, there were more working women with caring responsibilities in the KSA sub-sample compared to the UAE. This is partly because the UAE expatriates were mostly unmarried and without children (only two of the expatriates in UAE had children). These differences are likely to explain why the women in KSA appeared to find it more difficult to find a balance between their personal and working lives. Despite these differences, in both countries the women believed that flexible working was a good idea and should be available to them although it needed to be managed.

“Although abilities differ from one woman to another, it is generally difficult for women to work with caring responsibilities. But I think having flexible working conditions will be quite helpful.” (Yos, Home national/KSA)

8.10 Summary and Conclusions

The main focus of this chapter was to draw on the interview transcripts in order to extend the analysis of the issues facing women working in hotels in the KSA and the UAE. The research participants included both home nationals and expatriates and in the interviews the participants were asked about their views in relation to: barriers and the enablers in employment; family care responsibilities and employment; and flexible working practices. The analysis explored individual experiences and how the experiences of the women were shared and varied by country, nationality status and whether or not the women had caregiving responsibilities. In line with the results

discussed in the previous chapter there were differences as well as similarities between the experiences of women working in KSA and UAE. The experiences of home national Arabs and expatriate women also differed in some respects as did those of women with/without caring responsibilities for adults and/or children.

Some of these differences are to be expected given that while both KSA and UAE are Arab countries and share many features of the Arab cluster characterised in the Globe study, the social context for employment in the two countries is very different. In KSA face women face direct gender discrimination in a number of forms. For example, strict laws dictate that all women should be accompanied by men when leaving the house and driving is effectively illegal for women. Women are only allowed to take up work indoors, which is not the case in other Middle Eastern countries such as Kuwait, the UAE and Qatar. As a result, the majority of women in KSA have limited choices when it comes to employment. Not surprisingly, KSA has one of the lowest female employment rates in the world.

However, the government in KSA is adopting initiatives to open new avenues for employment opportunities for women and have made claims to raise the empowerment and development of women in the country (Al-Ahmadi, 2011). At an international level, the country has sanctioned three conventions (see chapter 2, section 2.2) that promote equality between genders in employment. Currently, the Saudi labour code enables all citizens, men and women, the right to engage in employment, and specifies that all employers must provide training opportunities for all employees.

Globalisation has led to many changes around the world and countries like KSA have also been affected. In order to develop the economy to its highest potential, the government needs to utilise all their resources, which implies the inclusion of more women in the working environment (Achoui, 2009). While some Saudi women are employed in high-level leadership positions in both the public and private sectors, their role and their level of authority is still under question. Women in these positions may hold a job title but still have limited scope to make decisions as the workplace is

dominated by men. Women may therefore feel pressurised to agree with the decisions and views of the dominant group, men.

The position of women in the UAE is somewhat different. This is partly due to the government's stated aim to replace the large number of foreign workers in the country with UAE nationals. The government also aims to integrate females in the employment system in order to meet the demands of the developing economy (Goby and Eroglu, 2011). While traditionally, females were not encouraged to engage in employment because of gendered social values, today the UAE is encouraging women to work in all sectors. The government is implementing new strategies to increase female participation in higher education, and promoting flexible working arrangements and labour laws are now giving women more power and also protecting them in many ways (see chapter 2, section 2.3). For example, women are now allowed maternity leave and they cannot be laid off during this period. However, in UAE women are not well represented in top-level roles such as technical, managerial, and recruitment and retention positions (UAE Economy, 2007, July 23

Since, the business and working environment in Arab countries is generally portrayed as male dominant it is assumed that Western women would find it difficult to survive in such an environment. However, Western women are increasingly finding career opportunities in the Middle East countries, such as the UAE, and are successfully working in these countries. More than 80% of the UAE population is comprised of expatriates (Grant et al., 2007), (UAE Economy, 2007) of which 40 to 50% of those from Western countries are females (National US–Arab Chamber of Commerce, 2007). In line with this demographic, the majority of the women interviewed in UAE were expatriates.

As well as including both expatriates and home nationals, the job roles of the women interviewed varied, as did levels of responsibility and seniority. However, in the UAE the workers interviewed were mostly employed in lower skilled positions e.g. as receptionists and waitresses while in KSA the women generally had higher skills levels and included managers, accountants, interior designers, engineers and architects.

The female employees in UAE, who, as noted, were mainly expatriates, appeared to be facing more difficulties than the female employees in KSA who were mostly home nationals. Discrimination on the basis of culture or country may have been a factor. However, the expatriates often felt pressurised to maintain their employed status because their family was financially depending on them. Similarly, the comparison between the nationals and the expatriates in KSA suggests that expatriates have difficulties adjusting to the cultural norms and organisational structures in KSA. Its rigid laws and customs, such as those preventing women from driving and requiring women to be accompanied by a man, can act as a barrier to female employment for both expatriates and home nationals. Expatriates said they were used to having basic rights in employment such as recompense for overtime but they said there was no pay for overtime in both the UAE and KSA and this was a source of de-motivation for them. The overtime was demanded and expected and some women said they agreed to do the overtime because of fear of losing their job. The extra hours of work with no compensating increase in pay clearly did nothing to help the women to maintain a balance between their work and home lives.

Negative social perceptions of working women in general and in the hotel sector in particular were another significant barrier referred to by home nationals in both the UAE and KSA. Some of the home national women said they found it difficult to deal with these negative views regarding working women. However, other home nationals said they had been encouraged by other family members to seek employment, suggesting that social norms within these two Arab countries are diverse and perhaps evolving. This may reflect government lead initiatives in both countries that have been designed to encourage women into employment (e.g. training programmes). However, more could surely be done to change societal views regarding working women.

To summarise, this part of the research aimed to document women's views on their experience of work, their motivation for work and the hurdles they face in employment e.g. due to lack of opportunity, discrimination, male dominance and family pressures and responsibilities. These challenges have been discussed in previous research and

appear to be intensified in Arab countries due to the culture and religious beliefs (Loscocco and Robinson, 1991). Interviews were conducted with 45 women working in hotels in KSA and UAE, both nationals and expatriates. The participants highlighted a range of barriers and difficulties faced by working women as well as enablers. Some of these were shared across UAE and KSA and by both home nationals and expatriates, but others are more specific to expatriate women and also for women with caregiving responsibilities. Nevertheless, since the sample is small it cannot be claimed to be representative of either the hotel sector or female employment in these two countries. More research is needed to investigate whether the findings discussed here extend to working women more generally in KSA and UAE.

Chapter 9

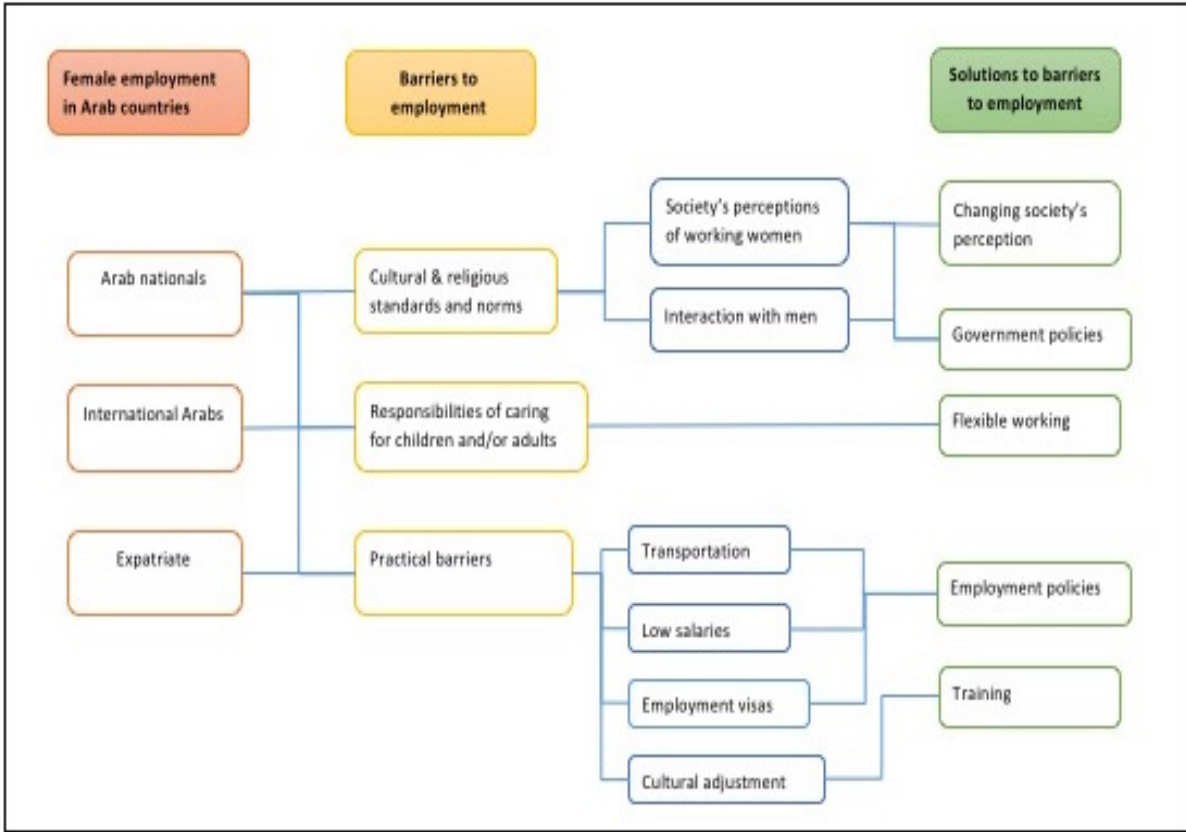
Chapter 9: Findings, Discussion and Conclusion

9.0 Introduction

The research presented in this thesis focused on the employment experiences of women working in KSA and UAE hotels. Chapter one of the thesis introduced research and presented the background to this study, while the second chapter reviewed previous research and empirical evidence on the employment of women in KSA, UAE and the Medina area. The third chapter explored the structure of tourism in the KSA and UAE, the sectorial and country context for the research. Chapter Four reviews theories of female disadvantage in employment and the fifth chapter outlined the methods and strategies used in conducting the research. Chapter six presented a descriptive analysis of the sample while chapter seven presented a more in-depth analysis of the data from the questionnaire survey. Chapter eight presented the findings from analysis of the qualitative data gathered from 45 face-to-face interviews with women working in hotels in KSA and UAE.

This chapter brings together the main themes of the research and summarises the research findings. The chapter begins by summarising some of the key results and findings and then draws some implications for policy and future research. The 'conceptual framework' illustrated in Figure 9.1 was developed in undertaking this study and shows the main themes and concepts researched and discussed. It highlights how the different concepts relate to each other and provides an overall visual perspective of the research. In particular, it differentiates the different barriers to employment faced by women in terms of whether these originate in cultural and religious norms, family caring arrangements or whether they are practical, everyday barriers linked to the organisation of society and work. The underlying typology of the barriers is also linked to possible solutions.

Figure 9.1 Developed Conceptual Framework



The following section summarises the main findings of the research in relation to the themes that explored.

9.1 Female Employment in KSA and UAE Hotel Sector

Illustrative insights and findings relating to female employment in KSA and UAE hotels are summarised in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Female Employment in KSA and UAE Hotels: Summary of Findings

Findings	Findings Details / Description	Relevant chapters
Finding 1	The hotel industry in both the KSA and UAE has started to hire more female workers	Chapter 3: Section 3.2 Tourism in the United Arab Emirates
Finding 2	Hotels in the KSA and UAE are employing expatriate females from outside their home countries. This is particularly the case in UAE	Chapter 8: Section 8.2 Barriers to work
Finding 3	No preference appears to be given by the hotel industry to national or to expatriate female employees in terms of seniority in post. This suggests that for female employees, the hierarchy in the hotel industry is constructed according to the abilities and the skills of the workers	Chapter 7: Section 7.3 Motivation for work and Satisfaction with working Experience
Finding 4	Females are employed by the hotel industry in the UAE and KSA at every level of the employment hierarchy. However, as observed during fieldwork, the numbers of women employed in the hotel industry are still very low, particularly in KSA.	Chapter 4: Section 4.1.4 Socialist feminism

Previous research indicates that worldwide management of the hospitality industry has remained dominated by male workers with top positions in the hands of male employees (Rashid et al., 1993); and see (Chapter 8: section 8.8). However, this situation is beginning to change. In Western countries, more female than male workers

are employed in the hotel industry and they are employed at all levels in customer relation positions. This possibly reflects commonly held assumptions that women perform better in customer relations because of a gentler approach and a more friendly manner that is appreciated by hotel customers. However, female employees have been less well represented in hotels in countries that have a conservative attitude towards female workers. However, this is changing and women are increasingly being employed in the hotel sector in conservative countries (Haan, 2004); and see (Chapter 8: section 8.8.2).

In line with this evidence, the findings of the present research study reveal that the hotel industry in the KSA and UAE is hiring more female workers, in management as well as at the lower levels with some top positions also being taken by women. Nevertheless, the numbers remain low and a major reason for this is the social culture in the KSA and UAE where women working outside of the home are widely disapproved of (Stephenson et al., 2010).; and see (Chapter 3: Section 3.2). This is especially true in the hotel industry as employees have to deal directly with both male and female customers as well as people from different communities, having their own customs and traditions which may mean they treat employees in a way that is not in accordance with the local culture. However, the role of women in the development of every country is vital, and the KSA and UAE governments understand that they cannot fully develop without bringing women into the economic sphere. Hence, in order to compete in the international market female workers are being employed in the KSA and UAE at a range of seniority levels (Moghadam, 1995). In these countries, the culture and the attitudes of men towards working women are also changing. Some women may therefore be finding it easier to convince their families to allow them to work outside the home.

The findings of the present study show that in the KSA and UAE hotels are employing expatriate as well as home nationals, particularly in UAE. Expatriate women in the research sample came from the Philippines, Korea, the UK, Italy, Spain and Nepal and also other Arab countries including Tunisia, Morocco and Egypt. A benefit to hotels of employing women from different countries is that it helps in dealing with international

customers in a more efficient manner. For example, it can allow the hotel management to attend to customers in their own language. Moreover, employing staff from different nationalities increases knowledge of different cultures and traditions so customers can be better looked after according to their tastes and preferences (Zachariah et al., 2002), Link: (Chapter 8: Section 8.2 Barrier to work). Home nationals and expatriate female workers also benefit from the exchange of experiences, views and ideas. The cross-cultural exchange of values and norms may result in more creative ways of working, potentially increasing efficiency in the hotel.

In line with previous research, the findings of the study indicate that female workers are employed at all levels in the KSA and UAE hotel industry in posts ranging from waitress and housekeeping jobs to management posts (Sadi and Henderson, 2005), and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.4). The jobs of the sampled women included the following roles: manager of finance and administration, accountant, phone operator, maintenance and service room, personnel assistant, reservation and operations, assistant manager, human resource manager, data entry, secretary, interior designer, construction engineer, architecture designer, receptionist, hostess, waitress, guest relation manager, finance department, administration assistant, business coordinator, cashier and housekeeping jobs.

Previous research suggested that wages would be linked to nationality and expatriate status (Connell, 2006), and see (Chapter 7: Section 7.3). However, another finding of the research was that the level of a job and the rate of pay was largely independent of nationality after other factors, including tenure and job roles were controlled for (Chapter 7 Section 4). Earnings were highest for home nationals in UAE, but not significantly so. However, the earnings of Arab ex-patriots were significantly lower than those of non-Arab ex-patriots. These findings suggest that hotel industry does not in general discriminate against nor favour expatriate female employees although there may some disadvantage to expatriate Arab females working in KSA and UAE. This suggests that the allocation of jobs and the level of salary were determined more by skills and ability than nationality. However, the analysis of the questionnaire data did find that the earnings of women with children were significantly lower than those of

women without children suggesting also an indirect effect on satisfaction with work through lower wages. This may be indicative of difficulties linked to work-life balance. Perhaps women with children could not give their full attention to their work resulting in lower levels of performance. Hence, the reward for their services was also lower.

While the research study shows that females are employed by the hotel industry in the UAE and KSA at every level of the employment hierarchy, the observation of me while conducting the fieldwork suggested that the overall numbers of females employed was still very low. Males were employees in much greater numbers than female employees, potentially creating issues for female workers in relation to job satisfaction and work productivity (Shallal, 2013). Link: (Chapter 4: Section 4.1.4 Socialist feminism). The study participants highlighted a range of issues they faced in seeking work and in employment and these included the male dominated character of the workplace environment.

9.2 Barriers to Female Employment in the Hotel Industry

Highlighting the barriers faced by women in employment was a major concern of the study. A range of barriers to, and in employment were highlighted in the analysis and illustrative findings are summarised in table 9.2. The knowledge gained in relation to these barriers should be helpful to policy makers in designing laws, rules and regulations to eliminate them.

Table 9.2: Barriers in Employment: Summary of Findings

Findings	Findings Details / Description	Relevant Chapters
Finding 1 (Social Culture)	International, expatriate female employee in the KSA and UAE faced difficulties adjusting to the wider social culture	Chapter 2: Section 2.1.2 GLOBE study and Section 2.2
Finding 2 (Culture at work)	The culture and environment of the workplace and the organisation (hotel).	Chapter 2: Section 2.2 The role of Saudi government in female employment)
Finding 3 (Male dominated culture)	Male dominated society and working environment	
Finding 4 (Discrimination)	Direct and indirect discrimination against female employees.	Chapter 4: Section 4.2.1 Employment discrimination and Section 4.2.2 Direct discrimination
Finding 5 (Working for Longer Hours)	Long working hours are a barrier to employment and a cause of job dissatisfaction	Chapter 4: Section 4.3 Tourism and gender discrimination and Chapter 8: Section 8.5.1 Long working hours
Finding 6 (Family Care Responsibilities)	Family care responsibilities can be a barrier to employment, but employment can also impact negatively on family life and	Chapter 4: Section 4.7.1 Caring responsibilities, Chapter 7: Section 7.2.2 work-life balance, flexible

	this lead to lower job satisfaction	working and job changes, Chapter 7, Section 7.3.1 Multivariate analysis of satisfaction with the experience of work, Chapter 8: Section 8.7.1 Advantages of flexible working and Chapter 8: Section 8.5.3 Satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the working experience.
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The process of working and managing a home is not easy, especially for women in traditionally conservative countries like KSA and UAE, where society is male dominated and women are discouraged from working in offices or anywhere outside the home (Voorhoeve, 2016). A woman who starts working to support her family financially has to face the pressure of disapproval from home and she also has to face disapproval from society especially if she wishes to move on and gain promotion.

The first step a woman has to overcome is actually securing work and this is unlikely to be easy. Companies in the KSA are generally owned by men and the hiring process for women is full of challenges as they have to compete with men who are generally considered better suited for hotel industry jobs (Harlan and Steinberg, 1989), and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.3). When a woman does secure a job because of her skills and ability she then has to survive in the organisation in a work environment dominated by male workers with little interest in supporting the separate needs of women. Hence, they have to adjust to the male dominated environment (Frug, 1979); and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.7). International, expatriate female employees face particular issues. For these women a major problem is in adjusting to the style of working which often differs significantly from that in their home countries or other countries in which they had worked. Adapting to what was seen as a more rigid environment could also result in

job dissatisfaction for some expatriate female employees (Samborn, 2000); and see (Chapter 2: Section 2.1.4). These different barriers are discussed further below.

9.2.1 Culture

The culture of every country is unique; even norms and attitudes in cities or regions within the same country may differ. The first problem faced by an expatriate, foreign national female employee in the KSA and UAE likely to be that of adjusting to a culture where women have little independence and are required to seek permission from men for everything they do. The independence they have in their own cultures cannot be enjoyed in the KSA and UAE as they have to abide by the laws, rules and regulations of the host country. For example, the issue of dress can create an element of dissatisfaction among foreign national non-Muslim female workers (Schein, 2001); and see (Chapter 2: Section 2.1.2). Because of these issues, the country culture can create difficulties for foreign national female workers in the KSA and UAE in general and in the hotel industry. This amounts to cultural barrier to and in employment. However, the local home national women also have to face the same barriers but for them these are the norm.

A second cultural issue for female workers in the hotel sector in the KSA and UAE is the culture of the working environment in the employing organisation (Aguirre, 2000), and see (Chapter 2: Section 2.1. The expatriate women in the sample said they were not used to the working such long hours for a comparatively low salary. Moreover, language differences also created issues for some expatriate women who needed to communicate in an international language, usually English that home nationals did always understand very well. This problem is exacerbated for women who do not speak English as their mother tongue, leading to miscommunication (Gallant and Pounder, 2008).

The missions and values of hotels can also differ depending on their country location and expatriates may face issues in understanding the vision and the mission of the hotel they are working in. In the KSA and UAE hotels are male dominated and this may be something that expatriate women are unused to even if they have worked in hotels

in other countries before. However, home national women in KSA and UAE may also feel uncomfortable in a male dominated environment if they have previously been confined to female dominated environments or their homes. This would be a particularly problem when there are no specific or separate facilities available for the female workers (Al-Ali, 2008), and see (Chapter 2: Section 2.1).

All in all, the culture of the KSA and UAE and also the working environment of the hotel industry in these countries can have adverse effects on the working experience of women, both expatriate and home nationals. The male dominated environment does not offer any kind of concessions to female workers. These features of the working environment in KSA and UAE are highlighted by the findings of the study: expatriate women need to be prepared to make adjustments particularly in respect of the traditional culture in KSA, perhaps less so in UAE. Public policy aimed at encouraging more women into work need to address these issues e.g. by ensuring there are appropriate facilities such as flexibility over working hours, access to transport and provisions to allow minimum contact with men for female workers.

9.2.2 Discrimination

The male dominated societies in the KSA and UAE essentially practice a form of socially accepted gender discrimination. In every field of working life it is assumed by employers that men are best suited for employment while women are responsible for the home and family. As a result, women are not welcomed into the working environment. In the KSA and UAE hotel sector direct and indirect discrimination against female employees is practised (Okpara et al., 2005): and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.2.1). Direct discrimination involves the practice of hiring men over women on the assumption that women are not as competent or productive, perhaps because they also have domestic duties and may also wish to take maternity leave. This is the prevailing belief in UAE and KSA and can explain why the number of female workers is very low (Klasen and Lamanna, 2009), and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.2.2). The results in chapter 7 also indicate that pay is lower for women with children even though they were more likely to cite financial difficulties as the reason for working. This suggests that women in general and women with children in particular may need to be

prepared to accept a lower wage than men in order to secure employment. Indirect discrimination in the hospitality industry is observed when policies and procedures disadvantage female workers and discourage them from seeking employment or make it less likely they will meet recruitment criteria. Long working hours are an example of this type of discrimination as women with caring and other family responsibilities are more time constrained. Moreover, home national, female workers may also face discrimination within wider society since working women are perceived negatively. In order to encourage more women into employment the government of the KSA in particular may need to implement laws which protect working women from discrimination.

9.2.3 Working for Longer Hours

The women interviewed said that they often had to work longer hours than they were contracted for e.g. because they had to deal with a large number of customers, and were not rewarded for these extra hours. This created some dissatisfaction which may potentially result in lower levels of productivity (Pijoan-Mas, 2006); and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.3). Long working hours appeared to more of an issue for expatriate women who said that they were not used to working such long hours on a daily basis. Moreover, in their home country when there was a need for extra working hours they were informed a week or even a month in advance and they received an appropriate financial reward for the extra hours they worked. They felt that their employers treated them like machines rather than humans and needed to be treated with more respect but they did not want to complain for fear of losing their jobs (Dearing et al., 2007),(White et al., 2003), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.5.1 and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.5.1).

Home national female workers also highlighted the problem of long working hours along with the suspicion they faced in society and negativity from their own families. Long hours have a particular impact for home nationals in KSA as women are not meant to stay away from their homes and families for long periods of time, particularly late at night. One policy implication might be that there should be some controls over

the number of hours that employees can work without a significant break in these countries.

9.2.4 Family Care Responsibilities

The burden of caring responsibilities shouldered by female workers in Arab countries is linked to cultural values and norms and home national and expatriate female workers may have different expectations in this regard, and different ways of balancing work and family. However, whatever their nationality, women can be empowered by working as it makes them financially strong and enables them to

support their family rather than being dependent on others (Lewis and Giullari, 2005); and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.7.1). However, many women have children or older adults to care for and they have to manage their time accordingly. In many countries, family care is often considered the main duty of a wife and mother and if women are required to be at home for long periods to take care of their family and children, this makes working tough.

Many of the expatriate female workers in the hotel industry of the KSA and UAE are living far away from their children and other family members are taking care of them. For these women, it was a priority to provide financial support rather than direct care. This suggests that in some countries caring responsibilities are assigned in response to practical issues and problems, not simply on the basis of assumed (and gendered) emotional relationships which constrain women's ability to work and achieve independence. Nevertheless, expatriate women face particular problems. For example, rules for international workers mean they cannot take vacations outside either the KSA or UAE until after they have been employed for a year (Artazcoz et al., 2004), and see (Chapter 7: Section 7.2.2). This means that expatriate mothers are unable to see their children long periods which is unlikely to be their preference even if they are prioritising financial need.

Women in the KSA and UAE usually have a significant caring role within the family, regardless of whether they are married or not or have children. Married women have to take care of their parents, in-laws and their children. Unmarried females in have

responsibility for parents and siblings for example they cook meals for them and support them in carrying out their daily routines. These responsibilities constrain women who want to work. As discussed, long working hours, create particular problems for women with family caring responsibilities (Itani et al., 2011), and see (Chapter 7, Section 7.4). Moreover, a significant family role makes it more difficult to prioritise and focus on work. Hence, for home national women in particular, it is likely to be difficult to manage work-life balance. On the whole, this was confirmed by the research findings: the women in the sample found that the tight schedules in the hotels made it difficult to manage their different responsibilities. This is in line with results from previous research, particularly in relation to requirements to work extra hours (Crabtree, 2007). Similarly, (Erickson et al., 2010), in a study on the relationship between work roles and family roles concluded that the work life interface is impacted by exposures to both work and family role demands. For example, in the KSA and UAE female workers usually have sole responsibility for their children which takes up a lot of time, especially when children are young. This may affect their productivity at work while the constraints on their time set by work can impact negatively on the quality of their home life. Difficulties in balancing work and family life that affect productivity at work if, for example, motivation and satisfaction levels decrease, could also mean that working women their jobs due to unsatisfactory performance (Shallal, 2013), and see (Chapter 7: Section 7.2.2).

As already noted, the research results also indicated that female workers who have children receive a lower salary in the KSA and UAE hotel sectors (Chapter 7). However, such discrimination has potentially adverse consequences from a social perspective since working mothers have more mouths to feed (although this ignores the contribution of the father). Interestingly, the women in the main sample children were more likely to also be older (above 29) which suggests they would be more work experienced and perhaps could have expected to earn a seniority premium rather than pay a wage penalty. However, since age and tenure were controlled for separately in the analysis, the negative impact of children is a net effect (Table 7.17)

The results in Chapter 7 and the findings in Chapter 8 also indicated that their work could create problems for the study participants at home, with their family, whilst at the same time they were trying to meet the demands of their employers regarding overtime and sometimes working through holidays as well. These factors combine to mean that the opportunity cost of working in the KSA and the UAE hotel industry is high for women while the rewards are low. The reward for working extra hours in the KSA and UAE hotel industry appears to be very low and many women will not feel that they can justify the sacrifices made regarding family and children (Stier and Lewin-Epstein, 2003), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.5.3. Nevertheless, many women want to, or feel they have to work for their own independence and for the benefit of their children, so they can have a better future.

Overall then, family care responsibilities for both home national and expatriate women are intrinsically linked with the experience of work. Human resource managers need to be aware of this reality and provide women with the appropriate facilities and the flexibility so that they better manage their work-life balance within the constraints set by social norms and expectations. In many hotels women do not have access to the facilities needed to support them in the e.g. transportation and the ability to take leave to care of their families when a need such as illness arises (Erogul and McCrohan, 2008); and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.7.1). Expatriate female workers should also be able to visit their families in their home countries, for example at least twice a year.

9.3 Enablers

The current research study exploits data from a 385 questionnaires and 45 interviews and the opinions and experiences gathered captured a range of views, thinking and perceptions. Some enablers that help and facilitate female workers in the UAE and KSA hotel industry were identified in this research and these can be balanced against the multiple barriers discussed above. Table 9.3 shows illustrative findings in relation to enablers for work.

Table 9.3: Enablers for Work: Summary of Findings

Findings	Findings Details / Description	Relevant Chapters
Finding 1	Prior work experience: helps in securing a job and in adjusting to a new work place and environment.	Chapter 8: Section 8.3.1. Previous experience
Finding 2	Motivation e.g. due to feelings of independence, not being dependent on men for their own needs.	Chapter 8: Section 8.4 Motivation to work.
Finding 3	Ease of finding jobs in the KSA and UAE hotel industry.	
Finding 4 +5 (Flexible Employment Practices)	Flexible working practices: to accommodate family care responsibilities and enable women to balance work and family life	Chapter 8: Section 8.7 View flexible working practices, Chapter 4: Section 4.7.2 Implications of flexible working and Chapter 7: Section 7.2 Comparative analysis of barriers to work and difficulties caused by work
	Flexible working practices: to help women with children	Chapter 8: Section 8.8.1 Comparison between Arab and expatriate female employees in KSA and Chapter 8: Section 8.7.1 Advantages of flexible working

The most important enabler for the female workers was prior work experience which can help them greatly in adjusting to a new work place and environment (Tuttle and Garr, 2009): and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.3.1). A second enabler is individual motivation, which the women attributed to feelings of independence they had at not had when they were fully dependent on men for their own needs. The third enabler identified by some female workers was the ease of finding jobs in the KSA and UAE hotel industry. One reason for this could be that this industry is emerging so there are new opportunities for female workers to secure jobs (Kumar and Che Rose, 2010), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.4). Flexible working practices could also be considered as an enabler for work and are discussed further below. These findings, in relation to enablers for work could help in the design of policy intendant to encourage women into employment in the KSA and UAE.

9.3.1 Flexible Employment Practices

The findings of the study suggest that women workers would be supportive of flexible employment practices as they believe that such practices could help them to accommodate their caring responsibilities and better balance their work and family life which is currently a challenge for many women. In the hotel sector in the KSA and UAE working conditions are tough for women when they also need to take care of their families and children.

The standard working week and long hours were both identified as issues by the female participants in this study. There was a suggestion that the working week should be around five days with two days off so there was some time for home and family. Flexible working hours which could be scheduled to better suit women's commitments, with the employer providing a range of hours and the employees selecting which working hours to work within these times (Guest, 2004), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.7). One important suggestion regarding flexible working conditions was for job sharing. This would help in the case of emergencies for example if a female employee had to leave or take time off in a critical situation (Storey et al., 2002), and see (Chapter 4: Section 4.7.2). Such options could help female workers to perform to the best of their abilities at both work and home. When employees are relaxed and satisfied with

their working conditions and feel supported by their employers, they are likely to perform better to the advantage of the employer. Furthermore, when managers introduce practices that facilitate their employees, the latter can feel a sense of ownership in the organisation which creates a sense of loyalty and motivates them to work harder in the same way that carefully constructed reward systems can motivate employees (Kelliher and Anderson, 2008), and see (Chapter 7: Section 7.2).

The findings suggest that the women with children have a stronger desire for flexible working practices than those who are unmarried or have no children (yet). This is predictable, given that it is more likely that they will have unscheduled emergencies, needing to take leave when their children are ill or to attend school meetings. In the KSA and UAE culture, dealing with such events is the sole or main responsibility of the mother and therefore greater scope for flexibility in work would be very helpful (Armstrong - Stassen, 2008), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.8.1). It would also help working mothers to be able to choose working hours convenient to school schedules perhaps through job share with a colleague. Living close to work, while not a flexible work practice, can help to take advantage of flexible work hours by saving time travelling and spending this time instead on tasks at home or at work.

Flexible working facilities that help female employees in the KSA and UAE hospitality industry can help to enhance performance which ultimately benefits the profits and potentially the reputation of the hotel (Leung et al., 2013), and see (Chapter 8: Section 8.7.1). In a hotel, the employees are often the ambassadors for the hotel, especially in the case of front line staff, so when they are more satisfied this can be of direct benefit to the hotel in promoting good will and reputation. Thus supporting workers can be of benefit to employers in both monetary and non-monetary terms as well as benefiting the employees of course. So, flexible working practices are potentially an important enabler for work for women as they can make work more attractive, a more feasible option and thereby encourage them into and to stay in the workplace. As such this would be good for women in the KSA and UAE who want to work, it would lead to an improvement in their financial position and their independence as well as potentially strengthening the economic condition of the country overall.

However, some adverse effects of flexible working practices were also identified; for example, working from the home may not provide necessary experience and status for female workers. The applicability of flexible working to different types of work and locations in the hotel was also questioned. Hence, it is concluded that there are potential benefits but also adverse effects associated with flexible working practices depending on the specific work environment and the needs of the workers (Grobler and De Bruyn, 2012), and see also (Chapter 8: Section 8.7.1).

9.4 Limitations of the research

The research study has faced limitations throughout the course of the research process and these are summarised below:

- i. The sample in the current research study is limited to the two Arab countries, the KSA and UAE and there is some sample selection bias, as only some hotels (mostly international chains) and potentially only more open-minded female employees participated.
- ii. The case study approach means that the findings cannot be compared with those from other countries due to cultural and the environmental differences between the two countries and other countries, including other Arab countries.
- iii. Lack of comparable secondary and primary research on female employment in the hotel sector in Arab countries restricted the reference base for the study.
- iv. The time needed to conduct the fieldwork, and the costs incurred, limited the scope of the data collected leading to a relatively small sample.
- v. The interpretation of the data collected using the questionnaire was difficult due to the lack of interaction with respondents.
- vi. The findings of the primary research are based solely on the views of the participants. There is no authentication based on secondary sources.

9.5 Summary of Contributions and Implications for Future Work

The contributions of the study need to be seen in relation to the wider body of previous research on female employment in Arab countries (See Chapters 1-4). Table 9.4 provides an overview of previous studies conducted on related topics. This is not an exhaustive list of research on the topic of women's employment in Arab countries. However, it provides a baseline for consideration of the contributions made by this particular thesis.

Table 9.4: Summary of previous research

Author(s)	Title	Main findings
Kemp et al. (2013)	The current state of female leadership in the United Arab Emirates	New knowledge on the presence of women leaders in different sectors within the UAE
Tung (1998)	American expatriates abroad: from neophytes to cosmopolitans, Journal of World Business	Knowledge on American expatriates
Stalker and Mavin (2011)	Learning and development experiences of self-initiated expatriate women in the United Arab Emirates	Knowledge on self-initiated expatriate women
Crabtree (2006)	Maternal perceptions of care-giving of children with developmental disabilities in the United Arab Emirates	New knowledge on care-giving of disabled children in the UAE
Littrell and Bertsch (2013)	Traditional and contemporary status of women in the patriarchal belt	Insights on women in living in patriarchal societies within all parts of the world
Kemp (2013)	Progress in female education and employment in the United Arab Emirates towards Millennium Development Goal (3): gender equality	Identifies three factors impacting women's employment in the future Discusses future limitations for female employment

Kemp et al. (2015)	Women in business leadership: a comparative study of countries in the Gulf Arab states	Informs on women in leadership roles and gender differences in the private sector in Arab Gulf states, across industries, both publically listed and private companies, and different sized organisations.
Sholkamy (2010)	Power, politics and development in the Arab context: or how can rearing chicks change patriarchy?	Discussion of female empowerment and addresses why Arab women resist advances from those who work to changing the social order.
Mostafa (2005)	Attitudes towards women managers in the United Arab Emirates: The effects of patriarchy, age, and sex differences	Analysis and discussion of attitudes towards women managers in the UAE
Kemp and Madsen (2014)	Oman's labour force: an analysis of gender in management	Knowledge on the presence of women in senior positions and management in Oman Comparison of gender in management across roles, industrial classification, size of company, and ownership.

This study builds on the literature reviewed in this thesis and summarised above by adding to knowledge and understanding of women's employment in Arab countries, specifically KSA and UAE. The particular characteristics and contributions of this research are:

- 1) A comparative study of female employment in UAE and KSA;
- 2) A focus on the hotel sector;
- 3) Consideration of both expatriate and national women;
- 4) Consideration of women with caring responsibilities;
- 5) Identification of the barriers and enablers to employment for women;

- 6) Assessment of factors underlying differences in women's job satisfaction and;
- 7) Discussion of and suggestions for addressing these barriers (e.g. flexible working practices).

Academic contributions

The current research study contributes to empirical evidence on the employment experiences of women working in KSA and UAE in an authentic and original way using primary data collected on fieldwork in these two countries (see Table 9.4). Previous research has focused on the employment of female workers in a wide range of scenarios and circumstances but there are few gender focused research studies that have accessed women working in the hospitality sector in Arab countries. The current research study therefore fills a gap in the literature by providing new empirical evidence on women employed in hotels in KSA and UAE, both home nationals and expatriates, and at all levels of the employment hierarchy.

Policy contributions

This research study will inform policy makers in the KSA and UAE and help them to gain a clearer view on the barriers and enablers for work faced by working women in these two countries. This should enable them to design policies and laws that aid in the protection of rights of working women and remove the barriers to work and career development that they currently face. Moreover, policy makers and HR scholars can capitalize on the insights on enablers to enhance the opportunities for women to find and stay in employment.

However, the policy context in Saudi is constructed and constrained by the royal family and wider social traditions. So, in addition to moral and empowerment arguments, the Saudi Government need to construct a business case for female employment. In response to such a case it needs to provide an environment for addressing barriers to female employment by for example, offering childcare provision and a system for transportation. These two issues are the commonly cited as barriers to female employment in Saudi society. Flexible working may also enable working women to

better manage their homes and jobs. This would potentially benefit both employees and employers.

At a national level, Emeritization and Saudisation could be constructed to better support employment of females. In order to do this, gender discrimination legislation should be implemented. This would facilitate the replacement of international workers by female as well as national workers and help to reduce unemployment.

Summary of thesis findings

Table 9.5 summarises the main findings which in general support the conclusion that women in the Arab countries experience barriers to attaining and remaining in employment. Disapproval of family member is one of the most significant hindrances to work for women. Although husbands can also act as barrier to women working in the Arab countries, other family members, such as in-laws, may also not approve. This is particularly the case for Arab women. Women from Western countries working in Arab countries tended not to say that their family and/or husband as barriers to employment.

Expatriate women face difficulties in attaining employment visas for working in Arab countries. As discussed in the literature review chapter, this may be because certain Arab countries, such as the UAE, are now focusing on reducing the number of foreign workers in the country and encouraging nationals into employment. Although this challenge is not directly related to seeking, attaining or maintaining employment, it is a significant hindrance for expatriate women. Another significant employment related issue for these women is the difficulties they experience in adjusting to the Arab lifestyle, culture and working environment. This is more of an issue for women from non-Arab countries.

Another significant barrier to work for women in Arab countries is society's negative perception of working women, and particularly those working in the hotel sector. However, women in work have perhaps developed an indifference to these kinds of attitudes as they have succeeded in securing employment. A majority of the Arab women sampled did not seek employment for financial reasons, instead they sought

work mainly because they wanted independence and to utilise their skills and abilities. This suggests that attaining employment could be seen in terms of personal self-development for these women. This is in contradiction to a general perception of Arab women as suppressed individuals who are unable to assert their rights and stand-up for themselves.

Another barrier to female employment in KSA and UAE identified in the research is that there is a lack of opportunities for women in Arab countries. As explored in the literature review chapters, one of the main causes of this may be due to the societal norm that it is unacceptable for women to interact with men outside their family. Due to the dynamic and global nature of the hospitality business environment, it may be difficult for employers to develop employment opportunities for women that do not require male interaction. However, there are more employment opportunities for women in certain sectors, such as education and also sales of female items.

The 'no interaction with men' rule is a particularly difficult barrier to address. It is very difficult for a majority of sectors and businesses to develop workplaces that do not have interaction with men. Several sectors and businesses, such as the hotel sector, are beginning to develop a little leniency in the face of this social norm and have employed women in positions that do involve minimal contact with men. However, this presents difficulties for the business as society and prospective customers/clients may develop a negative perception of the establishment. Therefore, the repercussions of employing women may be detrimental to the business itself. This suggests more focus needs to be placed on changing society's perception of working women and the level of interaction it may involve with men, as well as developing more employment opportunities for women.

Working women in Arab countries find it difficult to maintain a balance between their work and family life. This is particularly the case for women with children or women with other caring responsibilities. As a majority of women are not working for financial reasons, and domestic help is readily available in Arab countries, it may be assumed that one of the main reasons women find it difficult to manage work and home lives is

due to the time spent away from the family and the effort and time expended at work which can generate work-life conflicts. As highlighted in the research findings and in the literature review chapters, employees in Arab countries are often expected to work over-time without pay and perform to a high standard in their jobs to maintain their employment. They may be stressed because of having to maintain their employment and also ensure household and caring responsibilities are managed – the classic double day. In comparison, Arab men do not hold any household and/or caring responsibilities, and are therefore able to concentrate solely on their main responsibility of working outside the home.

Flexible working options may provide solutions to some of the barriers to work identified in this research study. Working at home for example, may minimise or even eliminate the 'no interaction with men outside the family' constraint. The research carried out in this study suggests that Arab women, with children, and working in KSA are most likely to benefit from flexible working. Despite the many difficulties and challenges, Arab women working in hotels are on the whole satisfied and happy with their decision to be in employment. However, women with caring responsibilities are less likely to be satisfied and happy.

Table 9.5: Summary of Research Findings

Findings	Implications
Women are employed in a range of positions within hotels in KSA and UAE. In the UAE many of the women employed are expatriates, in the KSA most of the sampled women were home nationals	Employment outside the home can be confidence boosting for all women, enabling them to be independent financially and to support themselves and their families. Financial imperatives are given priority over family care responsibilities by expatriate women
Barriers to work in hotels include: Husbands, family and other relatives; negative perceptions of women working particularly in hotels; lack of appropriate skills; difficulties arranging transport to/from work; lack of networks and experience; few employment opportunities for women and sometimes only a few hotels in a given location; low salaries; discrimination against women; and difficulty finding work that does not involve interaction with men.	These barriers can prevent women from accessing work by: creating lack of confidence; placing hurdles in the way of obtaining permission from the family to move into and within society; restricting women's' rights to and in employment; leading to discrimination in work and lower wages for women. These barriers need to be addressed by employers and policy makers.
Enablers to female employment include: financial motivation; a desire for independence; lack of stimulation at home; the desire to utilise skills and abilities; flexible working practices.	These factors can support women into and/or help them to stay in work, helping to nullify any barriers.

Implications for Future Research

Future research would benefit from wider access to female workers in hotels and females in employment more generally. Larger samples would be less prone to issues relating to sample selection and would enable researchers to generate more reliable results. However, a main source of sample selection is that women who want to work

but are unable to do so are excluded from research that only accesses working women. Future research would therefore benefit from access to such women. It would also be interesting to conduct research with men in order to facilitate a comparative analysis or to research male attitudes towards working women and by learning from this observation address the barriers that women face in KSA and UAE, that hinder them from engaging in leadership and political positions. Future research would also benefit by exploring different sectors and a wider range of female employment. A larger, more occupationally diverse sample would also enable an exploration of women's experiences, perceptions and values in relation to different job roles.

9.6 Recommendation and Implications

In light of the empirical findings of the current research study, a number of recommendations for the hospitality industry of the KSA and UAE are suggested. These aim to support women workers and enable them to enjoy equality in employment:

- i. Access to work: Female employees should be provided with the equal employment opportunities and access to work based on merit.
- ii. Discrimination in work: Measures should be taken to eliminate gender discrimination in work e.g. the financial rewards for work and promotion opportunities should be based on merit.
- iii. Employment of home nationals: The hotel sectors in KSA and UAE should aim to hire more local female employees since they have better knowledge than expatriates of the culture and legal environment. This would also be of wider benefit to each country's economy.
- iv. Family context and caring responsibilities: Family context should be taken into consideration by employers in order that working women can better balance their work with their home care responsibilities.
- v. Flexible work practices: Female employees, and particularly women with caring responsibilities, should be given more flexibility in work and the choice of working for shorter hours.
- vi. Government policies: the government should implement policies to help women to work by finding solutions to their transportation and nursery

provision needs. If working mothers could find care for their children near their work as part of a safeguarding policy, this would ensure children grow up close to their working mothers in circumstance consistent with safe and effective care. Such provision would directly help working mothers to remain in work, as it is very hard for them to balance work and caring responsibilities without it.

9.7 Summary

This thesis has helped to provide a voice for women working in hotels in KSA and UAE. This chapter summarised the main findings of the research. These relate to the employment experiences of female workers in the KSA and UAE hotel sector and the barriers and enablers to work that they face. The research also considered how family caring responsibilities can impact on work and how work can also impact negatively on family life. Lastly, the research considered how flexible employment practices could perhaps provide a way to improve the work-life balance of working women in KSA and UAE.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaires



University of Birmingham
Business School

Questionnaire

“Female Employment in the Gulf States (KSA & UAE): a Case Study of the Hotels Sector and the Role of Flexible Working”

Dear participant,

I am a postgraduate researcher from the Management Department at the University of Birmingham – UK. My research aims to analyse the impact of flexible working arrangements on caring women in the Gulf States and its implementation. Please answer all the questions of the current questionnaire. Your contribution to my project is very much appreciated. The information you provide will be used for this research only and will be treated in a confidential and anonymous manner. You are not required to reveal your name or any personal details. When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it to the hotel reception.

Thank you for taking the time to answer the questions.

Sincerely yours,

Saham Alismail

Email: SXA090@bham.ac.uk

Note: Flexible working means:

Flexible working or family-friendly working is described as a working pattern adapted to suit individual needs by allowing individuals to work flexibly and to have a better balance between life and work. Examples: Part-time work, job sharing, flexitime and shift swapping.

Part (1) Background Information

Please tick ☒ the answers that apply.

1. To which age groups do you belong?

- ☐ 18–28
- ☐ 29–39
- ☐ 40–50
- ☐ 51–61
- ☐ More than 61

2. Your marital status is?

- ☐ Single
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Widowed
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ **Other, please specify** -----

3. Do you have any children under 15 years old?

- ☐ One
- ☐ Two
- ☐ Three
- ☐ Four
- ☐ More than Four
- ☐ Not applicable

Part (2) Cultural Information

4. Why did you make the decision to find work? (Tick as many as applicable)

- ☐ Financial difficulties
- ☐ I want independence
- ☐ I was bored and wanted something to do

<input type="checkbox"/>	I want to utilise my skills and abilities
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

5. How easy or difficult was it for you to find employment?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Very easy
<input type="checkbox"/>	Easy
<input type="checkbox"/>	Neither easy nor difficult
<input type="checkbox"/>	Difficult
<input type="checkbox"/>	Very difficult

6. Did any of the following people make it difficult for you to find work?

<input type="checkbox"/>	My family
<input type="checkbox"/>	My husband
<input type="checkbox"/>	My relative
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

7. Did you face any of the following difficulties when you made the decision to find a job?

<input type="checkbox"/>	I did not have any difficulties
<input type="checkbox"/>	I suffered from how people think about women who work in hotels
<input type="checkbox"/>	I did not have any skills that can be used in my job
<input type="checkbox"/>	It was difficult for me to arrange for transportation to and from work
<input type="checkbox"/>	There were no networks which linked my experience with my job
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify -----

8. How happy or unhappy are you with your decision to find a job?

- ☐ Very happy
- ☐ Happy
- ☐ Neither happy nor unhappy
- ☐ Unhappy
- ☐ Very Unhappy

9. Has your work caused any of the following problems in your life? (Tick as many as applicable)

- ☐ Issues with my family
- ☐ Issues with my husband
- ☐ Issues with my children
- ☐ Issues with my caring
- ☐ Difficulties in managing my work and home life
- ☐ Difficulties in finding someone to care for my children while I am at work
- ☐ **Other, please specify** -----

10. Did you face any of the following difficulties while looking for work?

- ☐ Very few hotels in the place where I live
- ☐ Very few work opportunities for women
- ☐ The salaries are very low
- ☐ I was discriminated against because I am a woman
- ☐ It was difficult to find work that does not involve interaction with men
- ☐ **Other, please specify** -----

Part (3) Working Practices

11. Which of the following hotel departments do you work in?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Reception
<input type="checkbox"/>	Housekeeping
<input type="checkbox"/>	Restaurant
<input type="checkbox"/>	Marketing and Sales
<input type="checkbox"/>	Human Resource
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

12. For how long have you been working at this hotel?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than 1 year
<input type="checkbox"/>	1–3 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	4–6 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	7–9 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	10–12 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	More than 12 years

13. The nature of your job is:

<input type="checkbox"/>	A permanent job
<input type="checkbox"/>	Seasonal work
<input type="checkbox"/>	Done under contract for a fixed task
<input type="checkbox"/>	Done under contract for a fixed period
<input type="checkbox"/>	Agency temping
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

14. Currently, you are working?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Full time (more than 35 hours per week)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than 5 days per week
<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than 35 hours per week
<input type="checkbox"/>	Flexitime (a set number of hours per week, chosen by you)

<input type="checkbox"/>	Term-time working (working only when children are at school)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Job sharing (sharing job responsibilities and working hours with someone else)
<input type="checkbox"/>	On-call working (employer calls you whenever they need you to work)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Working from home (doing job while at home)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

15. If you are working part time what stops you from working more hours than you currently work? (Tick as many as applicable) If no please go to question no. 16

<input type="checkbox"/>	I am financially secure
<input type="checkbox"/>	I earn enough working part time
<input type="checkbox"/>	I want to spend time with my family
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have domestic commitments
<input type="checkbox"/>	I feel that there are insufficient childcare facilities available
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify ----- -----

16. Which of the possible benefits of flexible working conditions applies to you? (Tick as many as applicable)

<input type="checkbox"/>	More flexibility over my hours of work would improve my job satisfaction
<input type="checkbox"/>	More flexibility over my hours of work would improve personal life balance
<input type="checkbox"/>	More flexibility over my hours of work would enable me to work around childcare responsibilities
<input type="checkbox"/>	More flexibility over my hours of work would enable me to work around caring for other adults
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other, please specify -----

Part (4) Satisfaction with Work

17. Please tick ☒ the answers on how well do the following features characterise your current job:

Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

No.	The statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	My work is very interesting.					
2	I like my colleagues.					
3	I am respected from my colleagues.					
4	There is a healthy environment in my hotel.					
5	My work is challenging.					
6	My salary is good.					
7	My job is secure.					
8	There are promotion opportunities in my hotel.					

18. Please indicate ☒ your strength of agreement with the following statements:

No.	The statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	My employer shows very little concern for me.					
2	My employer is willing to help me when I need urgent					

	help regarding my work.					
3	My supervisor/manager gives me an opportunity to express my views.					
4	My supervisor/manager is fair in dealing with me.					
5	I feel that the hotel managers try to make my job as interesting as possible.					
6	I feel that the hotel managers are always available to help when there is a problem.					
7	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this hotel.					
8	I am willing to put myself out to help this hotel.					
9	I am quite proud to tell people I work for this hotel.					
10	To know that I make a contribution to the					

	success of this hotel would please me.					
11	I would recommend working in this hotel.					
12	I am fairly paid considering the responsibilities I have in my job.					
13	I am fairly paid compared to employees in other organisations doing similar work.					
14	I have the necessary training to do my job well.					
15	I am supported when I want to learn new skills.					
16	I would find it hard to leave the hotel even if I wanted to.					

Part (5) Caring Responsibilities

19. Do you have any of these other caring responsibilities? (Tick as many as applicable)

- ☐ Caring for a child(ren) under 15 years old
- ☐ Caring for a disabled adult(s)
- ☐ Caring for an elderly person(s)
- ☐ Caring for a disabled child(ren)
- ☐ None of the above

☐ Other caring responsibilities, please specify -----

20. Currently, are you responsible for caring for any adults (over 18 years old)? If no please go to question no. 21

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

If yes, how many-----

21. Approximately, how many hours per day do you spend on caring for children?

- ☐ 2–4 hours
☐ 5–7 hours
☐ More than 7 hours
☐ Not applicable

22. What is the age of the adult you are responsible for caring for? -----

23. If you are responsible for caring for one or more adults, please indicate their relationship to you.(Tick as many as applicable)

- ☐ Father
☐ Mother
☐ Husband
☐ Grandfather
☐ Grandmother
☐ Son
☐ Daughter
☐ Brother
☐ Sister
☐ Other, please specify -----
☐ Not applicable

24. If you have caring responsibilities, is this caring responsibility:

- ☐ Residential (within your own home)
- ☐ In a hospital
- ☐ In another house
- ☐ In a nursing home
- ☐ **Other, please specify** -----

25. Approximately, how many hours per day do you spend on caring for adults?

- ☐ 4–2 hours
- ☐ 7–5 hours
- ☐ More than 7 hours
- ☐ Not applicable

26. Have you changed your job to manage your home or caring responsibilities within the last year? If no please go to question no. 28

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

27. If yes, why did you do this?(Tick all applicable)

- ☐ Caring responsibilities
- ☐ Insufficient payment
- ☐ Lack of career advancement
- ☐ Workload (too much work)
- ☐ Relationship with other colleagues
- ☐ Shift patterns
- ☐ Benefits (low payment)
- ☐ Overtime
- ☐ Location (the place of work is far away)
- ☐ Discrimination between men and women
- ☐ Alternative job opportunities
- ☐ **Other, please specify** -----

28. Would you like to work flexible hours to help you manage your home or caring responsibilities?

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Yes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | No |

29. Please indicate your monthly income range.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Less than 2,000 SR/AED monthly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2,001–4,000 SR/AED monthly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4,001–6,000 S/R AED monthly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6,001–8,000 SR/AED monthly |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | More than 8,001–10,000 SR/AED monthly |



جامعة بيرمنجهام
كلية إدارة الأعمال
استبانة دراسية

"عمل المرأة ودور العمل المرن في الخليج العربي: دراسة حالة على قطاع الفنادق في السعودية والامارات"

اختي الكريمة

تقوم الباحثة بدراسة ميدانية في قطاع الفنادق بهدف التعرف على اثر ترتيبات العمل المرن على المرأة العاملة في الخليج العربي: (السعودية، والامارات) ارجو منكن قراءة جميع فقرات الاستبيان بدقة والاجابه عن جميعها علما بأن بياناتكن سوف تعامل بمنتهى السرية والحياد، و لن تستخدم الا لاهداف البحث العلمي فقط، مقدرة لكن جهدكن ووقتكن مسبقا.

مع فائق الاحترام والتقدير

سهام آل اسماعيل
طالبة دكتوراه- جامعة بيرمنجهام
المملكة المتحدة

ملاحظة: يقصد بالعمل المرن هو ذلك النظام من العمل الذي وضع ليتلائم مع الاحتياجات الفردية من خلال السماح للأفراد بالعمل بمرونة والحصول على توازن أفضل بين الحياة والعمل. أمثلة على ذلك: العمل بدوام جزئي او تقاسم أوقات العمل او حرية الاختيار لافترات الدوام بما يتناسب مع ظروف الفرد، او التبديل مع احد الزملاء في مهام العمل، او مشاركة احد الزملاء مهام العمل او العمل من المنزل دون الحاجة للذهاب الى موقع العمل.

الجزء الاول: البيانات الاساسية

** يرجى وضع اشارة (√) في المربع الذي ينطبق على حالتكن:
1. العمر

من 18 سنة الى 28 سنة.	<input type="checkbox"/>
من 29 سنة الى 39 سنة.	<input type="checkbox"/>
من 40 سنة الى 50 سنة.	<input type="checkbox"/>
من 51 سنة الى 61 سنة.	<input type="checkbox"/>
أكثر من 62 سنة.	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. الحالة الاجتماعية

عزباء	<input type="checkbox"/>
متزوجة	<input type="checkbox"/>
ارملة	<input type="checkbox"/>
مطلقة	<input type="checkbox"/>
أخرى، يرجى تحديدها	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. ما هو عدد الاطفال الذين تقومين برعايتهم وعمرهم دون سن الخامسة عشر؟

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| واحد | |
| اثنان | |
| ثلاثة | |
| أربعة | |
| أكثر من أربعة | |
| لا ينطبق | |

الجزء الثاني: الثقافة الاجتماعية

4. ما هي الاسباب التي دفعتك للحصول على وظيفتك الحالية (يمكن اختيار اكثر من سبب من الاسباب التالية):

- | | |
|---|--|
| الحصول على المال | |
| اريد ان اشعر بالاستقلالية | |
| اشعر بالملل واريد أن افعل شيء جديد ومختلف | |
| رغبتي في استخدام مهاراتي وقدراتي المهنية | |
| أخرى، يرجى ذكرها ----- | |

5. ما مدى سهولة الحصول على وظيفة بالنسبة لك ؟

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| من السهل جدا | |
| سهل | |
| متوسط السهولة | |
| صعب | |
| من الصعب جدا | |

6. أي من الجهات التالية لها تأثير اثناء البحث على وظيفة؟

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| اهلي | |
| زوجي | |
| اقربائي | |
| أخرى، يرجى تحديدها ----- | |

7. هل واجهتك أي من الصعوبات و المعانات التالية عند اتخاذ القرار في الحصول على وظيفتك الحالية:

- | | |
|--|--|
| لم اواجه اي صعوبات او معانات | |
| اعاني من النظرة الاجتماعية لعمل الفتيات في الفنادق | |
| اعاني من ضعف المهارات الوظيفية التي املكها | |
| اعاني من صعوبة المواصلات والتنقل من وإلى مكان العمل | |
| اعاني من عدم وجود مواقع كافية للتواصل الوظيفي بالانترنت التي تجمع بين خبراتي | |
| بوظيفتي | |
| صعوبات أخرى، يرجى تحديدها ----- | |

8. الى اي مدى انت سعيدة بحصولك على وظيفة؟

- | | |
|------------|--|
| سعيدة جدا. | |
| سعيدة. | |

سعيدة الى حد ما. ☐

غير سعيدة. ☐

غير سعيدة اطلاقا. ☐

9. هل الوظيفة تسبب لك اية من المشاكل التالية في حياتك العائلية؟

خلافات مع اهلي. ☐

خلافات مع زوجي. ☐

خلافات مع اطفالي. ☐

خلافات مع من ارعاهم من غير اطفالي. ☐

صعوبات في إدارة عملي والحياة المنزلية. ☐

صعوبات في العثور على شخص يساعدني في رعاية أطفالي اثناء عملي. ☐

مشاكل اخرى، يرجى ذكرها ----- ☐

10. هل واجهتك اي من الصعوبات التالية أثناء البحث عن وظيفة ؟

قلة المنشآت الفندقية في المنطقة. ☐

فرص العمل قليلة جدا للأناث. ☐

انخفاض مستوى الرواتب والاجور. ☐

التمييز العنصري في علمية التوظيف ضد الاناث. ☐

صعوبة الحصول على وظيفة دون الاختلاط بالرجال. ☐

اخرى، يرجى ذكرها ----- ☐

الجزء الثالث: ممارسات العمل

11. في اي من الاقسام التالية تعملين في الفندق حاليا؟

الاستقبال. ☐

التنظيف. ☐

الطعام والشراب. ☐

التسويق. ☐

ادارة الموارد البشرية (شؤون الموظفين). ☐

اخرى، يرجى تحديدها ----- ☐

12. كم عدد سنوات خبرتك العملية في هذا الفندق ؟

أقل من سنة واحدة ☐

1-3 سنوات ☐

4 – 6 سنوات ☐

7- 9 سنوات ☐

9- 12 سنوات ☐

أكثر من 12 سنوات ☐

13. ماهو طبيعة عملك الحالي:

عمل دائم ☐

عمل موسمي	
عمل بموجب عقد (لمهمة محددة)	
عمل بموجب عقد (لفترة محددة)	
عمل من خلال وكيل متعاقد مع الفندق	
أخرى، يرجى تحديدها -----	

14. ماهو النظام الذي تمارسه في عملك الحالي:

دوام كامل (أكثر من 35 ساعة في الأسبوع)	
أقل من 5 أيام في الأسبوع	
أقل من 35 ساعة في الأسبوع	
عمل مرن (عدد محدد من الساعات في الأسبوع، وتقومين انتي باختيارها).	
فترة من العمل (تعملين فقط عندما يكون الأطفال في المدرسة)	
تقاسم الوظائف (تقاسم مسؤوليات العمل وساعات العمل مع شخص آخر)	
العمل تحت الطلب (صاحب العمل يدعوك كلما كان هناك حاجة لك)	
العمل من المنزل (القيام بمهام الوظيفة دون الحاجة للخروج من المنزل)	
أخرى، يرجى تحديده -----	

15. إذا كنتِ تعملين بشكل جزئي ما هي الاسباب وراء ذلك؟ (إذا كانت الاجابة (لا) راجيا الانتقال الى سؤال رقم 16

مباشرة} (تستطيعين اختيار اكثر من سبب من الاسباب المدونة تاليا)

مرتاحة ماليا	
العمل بدوام جزئي يغطي تكاليف معيشتي	
اريد قضاء بعض الوقت مع عائلتي	
لدي ارتباطات عائلية	
قلة وجود مرافق مخصصة لرعاية اطفالي	
أخرى، ارجو ذكرها -----	

16. ماهي الفوائد المحتملة للعمل المرن في الفندق وتشعرين بأهميتها: (يجوز لك ان تختار اكثر من فائدة)

المزيد من المرونة خلال ساعات عملي تحسن من رضاي الوظيفي.	
المزيد من المرونة خلال ساعات عملي تخلق نوعا من التوازن في حياتي الشخصية.	
المزيد من المرونة خلال ساعات عملي تمكنني اهتم برعاية اطفالي و ارفع شؤونهم.	
المزيد من المرونة خلال ساعات عملي تمكنني من رعاية من اعولهم من كبار السن.	
أخرى، يرجى ذكرها -----	

17. يرجى وضع اشارة (✓) في المكان الذي يمثل رأيك الخاص بميزات عملك الحالي:

رقم	العبارة	موافق بشدة	موافق	محايد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
1	يمتاز عملي بالمتعة.					

2	ارتاح في العمل مع زملائي					
3	اشعر بالاحترام من قبل زملائي					
4	بيئة العمل مريحة وخالية من المشاحنات والصراعات (بيئة عمل صحية).					
5	عملي صعب و يمثل تحديا بالنسبة لي					
6	الراتب الذي اتقاضاه مجزي					
7	اشعر بالامن الوظيفي في هذا الفندق.					
8	هناك فرص جيدة للترقية في هذا الفندق.					

الجزء الرابع: الرضا الوظيفي

18. يرجى وضع اشارة (√) في الربع الذي يمثل درجة رضاك عن المحاور التالية في هذا الفندق:

رقم	العبارة	موافق بشدة	موافق	محايد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
1	رئيسي المباشر يعطيني الاهتمام الكافي.					
2	رئيسي المباشر على استعداد لمساعدتي عندما اكون في حاجة للمساعدة بشيء يتعلق بالعمل.					
3	رئيسي المباشر يعطيني فرصة للتعبير عن رأيي.					
4	يتسم رئيسي المباشر بالعدالة عند التعامل معي.					
5	إدارة الفندق تحاول أن تجعل العمل ممتعا.					
6	عندما تواجهني مشكلة في الفندق اجد ان ادارة الفندق مستعدة دائما لمساعدتي.					
7	أشعر بالانتماء القوي لهذا الفندق.					
8	اشعر بالسعادة عندما اقدم مساعدة من خلال عملي لهذا الفندق.					
9	اشعر بالفخر بسبب عملي بهذا الفندق.					
10	دائما اقدم افضل مالدي مما يجعل مديري متمسك بي .					
11	أنصح معارفي للعمل بهذا الفندق .					
12	احصل على راتب يكافأ الواجبات المطلوبة مني.					
13	احصل على راتب جيد مقارنة بالفنادق الاخرى المشابهة.					

14	احصل على التدريب اللازم لأقوم بعملتي بشكل جيد.					
15	احصل على الدعم الكافي عندما ارجب في تعلم مهارات جديدة.					
16	اشعر بأنني منغمسه في عملي لدرجة كبيرة ولا احب ان افارقه.					

الجزء الخامس: مسؤوليات الرعاية

19. اي من مسؤوليات الرعاية تقومين به؟ راجيا اختيار ما ينطبق على وضعكن: (يجوز اختيار اكثر من خيار)

رعاية اطفال تحت عمر 15 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>
رعاية معاقين كبار	<input type="checkbox"/>
رعاية مسنين	<input type="checkbox"/>
رعاية اطفال معاقين	<input type="checkbox"/>
لا يوجد عندي اي مسؤولية رعاية من الموجودين اعلاه	<input type="checkbox"/>
مسؤوليات اخرى (يرجى تحديدها) -----	<input type="checkbox"/>
-----	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. حاليا، هل أنت مسؤولة عن رعاية اي من البالغين (فوق 18 سنة)؟ إذا كانت الاجابة لا راجيا الانتقال الى سؤال رقم 21 مباشرة

نعم	<input type="checkbox"/>
لا	<input type="checkbox"/>

إذا كانت الاجابة نعم، كم عدد من تعولينهم او ترعينهم (-----)

21. كم تقضين من الوقت في رعاية اطفالك؟

4-2 ساعات يوميا	<input type="checkbox"/>
7-5 ساعات يوميا	<input type="checkbox"/>
أكثر من 7 ساعات يوميا	<input type="checkbox"/>
لا ينطبق	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. ما هو عمر البالغين المسؤولة عن رعايتهم؟ -----

23. اذا كنت مسؤولة عن رعاية واحد أو أكثر من الكبار، يرجى الإشارة إلى صلة القرابة بينكما: (يجوز اختيار اكثر من خيار)

الوالد	<input type="checkbox"/>
الوالده	<input type="checkbox"/>
الزوج	<input type="checkbox"/>
الجد	<input type="checkbox"/>
الجدة	<input type="checkbox"/>
الابن	<input type="checkbox"/>
الابنة	<input type="checkbox"/>
الاخ	<input type="checkbox"/>

الاخت ☐
 أخرى، يرجى تحديدها ☐
 لا ينطبق ☐

24. حسب إجابة السؤال (23) أين تتم هذه الرعاية؟

داخل المنزل ☐
 في المستشفى ☐
 في منزل آخر ☐
 في احد دور الرعاية ☐
 اماكن أخرى، يرجى ذكرها ☐

25. كم تقضين من الوقت في رعاية البالغين؟

4-2 ساعات يوميا ☐
 7-5 ساعات يوميا ☐
 أكثر من 7 ساعات يوميا ☐
 لا ينطبق ☐

26. هل قمتي بتغيير وظيفتك (عملك) خلال العام الماضي بسبب مسؤولياتك اتجاه رعاية اطفالك او غير ذلك؟ إذا كانت الاجابة لا راجيا الانتقال الى سؤال رقم 28 مباشرة):

نعم ☐
 لا ☐

27. اذا كان الجواب نعم في السؤال السابق، ماهو السبب في تغيير وظيفتك (عملك)؟ (تستطيع اختيار اكثر من سبب من الاسباب المدونة تالياً):

مسؤوليات الرعاية ☐
 لعدم كفاية الاجر او الراتب ☐
 بسبب ضعف التقدم الوظيفي. ☐
 بسبب ان حجم وعبء العمل كبير ☐
 بسبب العلاقة مع الزملاء/ الزميلات ☐
 عدم مناسبة اوقات العمل (الليل و النهار) ☐
 الفوائد المالية (تدني الراتب) ☐
 وجود ساعات عمل إضافية ☐
 بعد مسافة مكان العمل (مكان العمل بعيد عن مكان سكني) ☐
 التمييز في العمل بين الرجل و المرأة (وجود تحيز بين الذكور و الاناث) ☐
 وجود فرص عمل بديلة ☐
 اسباب اخرى، يرجى ذكرها ☐

28. هل ترغبين اختيار ساعات العمل الملائمة لك من اجل إدارة منزلك أو رعايتك غيرك ؟

نعم ☐
 لا ☐

29. ما هو مجموع دخلك الشهري الفردي الذي تحصلين عليه:

أقل من 2,000 درهم شهريا	<input type="checkbox"/>
2,001-4,000 درهم شهريا	<input type="checkbox"/>
4,001-6,000 درهم شهريا	<input type="checkbox"/>
6,001-8,000 درهم شهريا	<input type="checkbox"/>
8,001-10,000 درهم شهريا فأكثر	<input type="checkbox"/>

شكرا جزيلا لوقتكن الثمين

ملاحظة: في حال وجود أي استفسار لديكن يرجى التواصل مع الباحثة على البريد الإلكتروني التالي:

sxa090@bham.ac.uk

Developing the Questionnaires

Q s	Questions before	Questions after
1	Which age group do you belong to?	(Small change in age range of groups)
2	What is your marital status?	(The same)
3	Do you have any children under 15 years old?	(Added)
4	Why did you make the decision to find employment?	Why did you make the decision to find work
5	How easy or difficult was it for you to find employment?	(The same)
6	Did any of the following people make it difficult for you to find work?	(Added: 'my husband' instead of 'friends')
7	Did you face any of the following difficulties when you made the decision to find a job?	(Added: 'I didn't have any difficulties' 'I suffered from how people think about women who work in hotels' 'there are no networks which link my experience with my job')
8	How happy or unhappy are you with your decision to find a job?	(The same)
9	Has your work caused any of the following problems in your life?	(Added: family and careers)
10	Did you face any of the following difficulties while looking for work?	(Added: 'very few hotels in the place where I live' 'other')
11	Which of the following hotel departments do you work in?	(Added: 'human resources')
12	For how long have you been working at this hotel?	(Small change in number of hours)
13	The nature of your job is?	(Deleted casual type of work)
14	Currently, are you working full time?	(The same)

15	If you are working part time, what stops you from working more hours than you currently work?	(The same)
16	Which of the possible benefits of flexible working conditions applies to you?	(Deleted none of the above)
17	Please tick <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> the answers in how well the following features characterise your current job: Is it interesting work?	My work is very interesting.
	I have friendly colleagues.	I like my colleagues.
	I am respected.	I get respect from my colleagues.
	There is a healthy environment.	There is a healthy environment in my hotel.
	The work is challenging.	My work is challenging.
	The salary is good.	My salary is good.
	The job is secure.	My job is secure.
	There are promotion opportunities.	There are promotion opportunities in my hotel.
	There are opportunities for training.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	I have good supervisors.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	There is scope for flexible working.	(Deleted-not clear for some of the employees)
18	Please indicate <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> your strength of agreement with the following statements: My employer shows very little concern for me.	(The same)
	My employer is willing to help me when I need urgent help regarding my work.	(The same)

	My supervisor/manager gives me an opportunity to express my views.	(The same)
	My supervisor/manager is fair in dealing with me.	(The same)
	I feel that the hotel management try to make my job as interesting as possible.	I feel that the hotel managers try to make my job as interesting as possible.
	I feel that the hotel management is always available to help when there is a problem.	I feel that the hotel managers are always available to help when there is a problem.
	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this hotel.	(The same)
	I am willing to put myself out to help this hotel.	(The same)
	I am quite proud to tell people I work for this hotel.	(The same)
	To know that I make a contribution to the success of this hotel would please me.	(The same)
	I would recommend working in this hotel.	(The same)
	I am fairly paid considering the responsibilities I have in my job.	(The same)
	I am fairly paid compared to employees in other organisations doing similar work.	(The same)
	I have the necessary training to do my job well.	(The same)
	I am supported when I want to learn new skills.	(The same)
	I would find it hard to leave the hotel even if I wanted to.	(The same)

	I feel myself part of this hotel.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	I feel like 'part of a family' at this hotel.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	I like to feel that I'm making a contribution to the hotel through my work.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	My extra benefits are fair compared to what employees doing similar work in other organisations receive.	(Deleted-not clear for some of the employees)
	My training and development are up to date.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	I'm frequently making suggestions within my department on how the work can be improved.	(Deleted-similar to the other questions)
	I stay with the hotel as a matter of need.	(Deleted-not clear for some of the employees)
19	Do you have any of these other caring responsibilities (e.g. child/disabled person)?	(Added: 'caring for a child(ren) under 15 years old' 'other')
20	Currently, are you responsible for caring for any adults (over 18 years old)?	(Added: 'if yes, how many?')
21	Approximately, how many hours per day do you spend on caring for children?	(Small change in number of hours)
22	What is the age of the adult you are responsible for caring for?	(Added: 'brother/sister')
23	If you are responsible for caring for one or more adults, please indicate their relationship to you (e.g. father/mother).	(Added)

24	If you have caring responsibilities, where is this caring responsibility (e.g. home/hospital)?	(The same)
25	Approximately how many hours per day do you spend on caring for adults?	(Small change in number of hours)
26	Have you changed your job to manage your home or caring responsibilities within the last year?	(The same)
27	If yes, why did you do this (e.g. caring responsibilities)?	(Deleted: 'working conditions' 'not applicable')
28	Would you like to work flexible hours to help you manage your home or caring responsibilities?	(The same)
29	Please indicate your monthly income range.	(Small change in income range and added: 'SR/AED')

Appendix 2: Interview Questions



University of Birmingham

Business School

Interview Questions

“Female Employment in the Gulf States; a Case Study of the Hotel Sector and the Role of Flexible Working”

Part (1) Background Information

Please tick ☒ the answers that apply.

30. To which age groups do you belong?

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 18–25 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 26–35 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 36–45 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 46–55 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | More than 56 |

31. Your marital status is?

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Single |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Married |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Widowed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Divorced |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Other, please specify ----- |
| | ---- |

32. Do you have any children under 15 years old? If no please go to Q5

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Yes |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | No |

33. If yes how many?

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | One |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Two |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Three |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Four |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | More than Four |

Part (2) Interview Questions

1. What's your job and what's the nature of your job?
2. Why did you make the decision to find employment?
3. How easy or difficult was it for you to find employment?
4. Did you face any difficulties when you made the decision to find work?
5. How happy or unhappy are you with your decision to find work?
6. Has your work caused any problems in your life? If yes what these problems?
7. If you had a choice, would you work? For example, if you did not have any financial difficulties?
8. Did you face any difficulties while looking for work? If yes, what were these the difficulties?
9. Are there any flexible working arrangements available in your workplace? If yes, what are they?
10. If flexible working arrangements are not available in your workplace, do you think they should be? If yes, why? If no, why?
11. Do you currently, or have you in the past, worked flexibly?
12. If you are/were working flexibly, how has this impacted on your personal and work life?
13. What do you think are the advantages of flexible working arrangements?
14. What do you think are the disadvantages of flexible working arrangements?
15. Which do you think are the most effective types of flexible working arrangements?
16. Do you think you would be more/less happy with your job if you were able to work flexibly?

17. Have you ever considered leaving your job? If yes, do you think flexible working would encourage you to remain in employment?
18. Do you think the hotel should implement more flexible working options?
19. How can flexible working change or improve your life?
20. Do you think flexible working would have any impact on your ability to manage your home or caring responsibilities? If yes how?
21. **Please indicate your monthly income range.**

<input type="checkbox"/>	Less than 8000 SR/AED
<input type="checkbox"/>	8001–18000 SR/AED
<input type="checkbox"/>	18001–28,000 SR/AED
<input type="checkbox"/>	28,001–38,000 SR/AED
<input type="checkbox"/>	38,001–48,000 SR/AED



جامعة بمرنجهام
كلية إدارة الأعمال

اسئلة المقابلات

" عمل المرأة ودور العمل المرن في الخليج العربي: دراسة حالة على قطاع الفنادق "

اختي الكريمة

تقوم الباحثة بدراسة ميدانية في قطاع الفنادق بهدف التعرف على اثر ترتيبات العمل المرن على المرأة العاملة في بعض دول الخليج العربي (الامارات-السعودية). سيتم استخدام المعلومات التي تقدمها لهذا البحث فقط وسوف تعامل بطريقة سرية ومجهولة المصدر. ليس مطلوباً منك أن تكشفين اسمك أو أي تفاصيل شخصية في هذه المقابلة. المقابلة سوف تستغرق ما بين 25 الى 30 دقيقة.

مع خالص الشكر والتقدير.

ملاحظة: العمل المرن هو عبارة عن نظام من العمل وضع ليلانم الاحتياجات الفردية من خلال السماح للأفراد بالعمل بمرونة والحصول على توازن أفضل بين الحياة والعمل. أمثلة على ذلك: العمل بدوام جزئي أثناء العمل أو تقاسم أوقات العمل أو الحصول على المرونة في اختيار أوقات الدوام بما يتناسب مع ظروف الفرد أو التبدل مع أحد الزملاء في مهام العمل أو مشاركة أحد الزملاء مهام العمل أو العمل من المنزل.

سهام آل اسماعيل

طالبة دكتوراه- جامعة بمرنجهام

المملكة المتحدة

الجزء الاول معلومات عامة:

يرجى وضع إشارة (√) عند الاجابة التي تنطبق عليكم:
1. العمر

18 حتى 24	<input type="checkbox"/>
26 حتى 35	<input type="checkbox"/>
36 حتى 45	<input type="checkbox"/>
46 حتى 55	<input type="checkbox"/>
أكثر من 56	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. الحالة الاجتماعية

عزباء	<input type="checkbox"/>
متزوجة	<input type="checkbox"/>
ارملة	<input type="checkbox"/>
مطلقة	<input type="checkbox"/>

أخرى، يرجى تحديدها -----

3. هل لديك أية اطفال اعمارهم دون سن 15 سنة؟ (إذا كانت الاجابة لا راجيا الانتقال الى سؤال رقم مباشرة 5

نعم	
لا	

4. ما هو عدد الاطفال الذين تقومين برعايتهم وعمرهم دون سن الخامسة عشر؟

واحد	
اثنان	
ثلاثة	
أربعة	
أكثر من أربعة	

الاسئلة

1. لماذا اتخذتي قرار الحصول على عمل؟
2. ما مدى سهولة أو صعوبة الحصول على وظيفة لديك؟
3. هل واجهتك أي من الصعوبات التالية عند اتخاذ القرار للحصول على عمل؟
4. ماهو شعورك عندما قررتي البحث على فرصة وظيفية؟ سعيدة او غير سعيدة؟ مترددة او غير مترددة؟
5. هل عملي يسبب لكي أي من المشاكل في حياتك؟ إذا نعم ما نوع المشاكل إذا ممكن؟ مع الزوج او الاطفال او غير ذلك؟
6. إذا كان خيار العمل بيدكي هل سوف تعملين؟ على سبيل المثال، إذا لم تعانين من أية صعوبات مالية هل سوف تعملين؟
7. هل واجهتكي أي من صعوبات أثناء البحث عن العمل؟ إذا يوجد ماهي هذي الصعوبات؟
8. هل يوجد أي نوع من انواع العمل المرن متوفر ومتاح لكي في مكان عملك؟ إذا كان الجواب نعم، ما هي؟
9. إذا كان العمل المرن غير متوفر في مكان عملك، هل تعتقدي أنه ينبغي أن تتوفر هذا النوع من العمل؟ إذا كان الجواب نعم، لماذا؟ إذا لا، لماذا؟
10. حالياً، أو في الماضي، هل سبق لكي أن عملتي عمل من احدى انواع العمل المرن؟
11. إذا كان الجواب نعم كيف العمل المرن اثر في حياتك العملية و الشخصية؟
12. برأيك ماهي مميزات العمل المرن؟
13. برأيك ماهي مساوئ العمل المرن؟
14. برأيك ماهو أكثر الأنواع فعالية من انواع العمل المرن؟
15. هل تعتقدي أنك سوف تكونين أكثر أو أقل سعادة في عملك إذا كنت قادرا على العمل عمل بمرونة؟
16. هل فكرتي في ترك وظيفتك؟ إذا كان الجواب نعم، هل تعتقد أن العمل المرن يشجعك على البقاء في العمل؟
17. هل تعتقدي أن الفندق ينبغي أن ينفذ خيارات أكثر من العمل المرن؟
18. كيف للعمل المرن ممكن ان يغير أو يحسن حياتك؟

19. هل تعتقد ان العمل المرن سيكون له أي تأثير على قدرتك على إدارة مسؤوليات منزلك؟ او مسؤوليات الرعاية ؟ اذا كان

الجواب نعم كيف؟

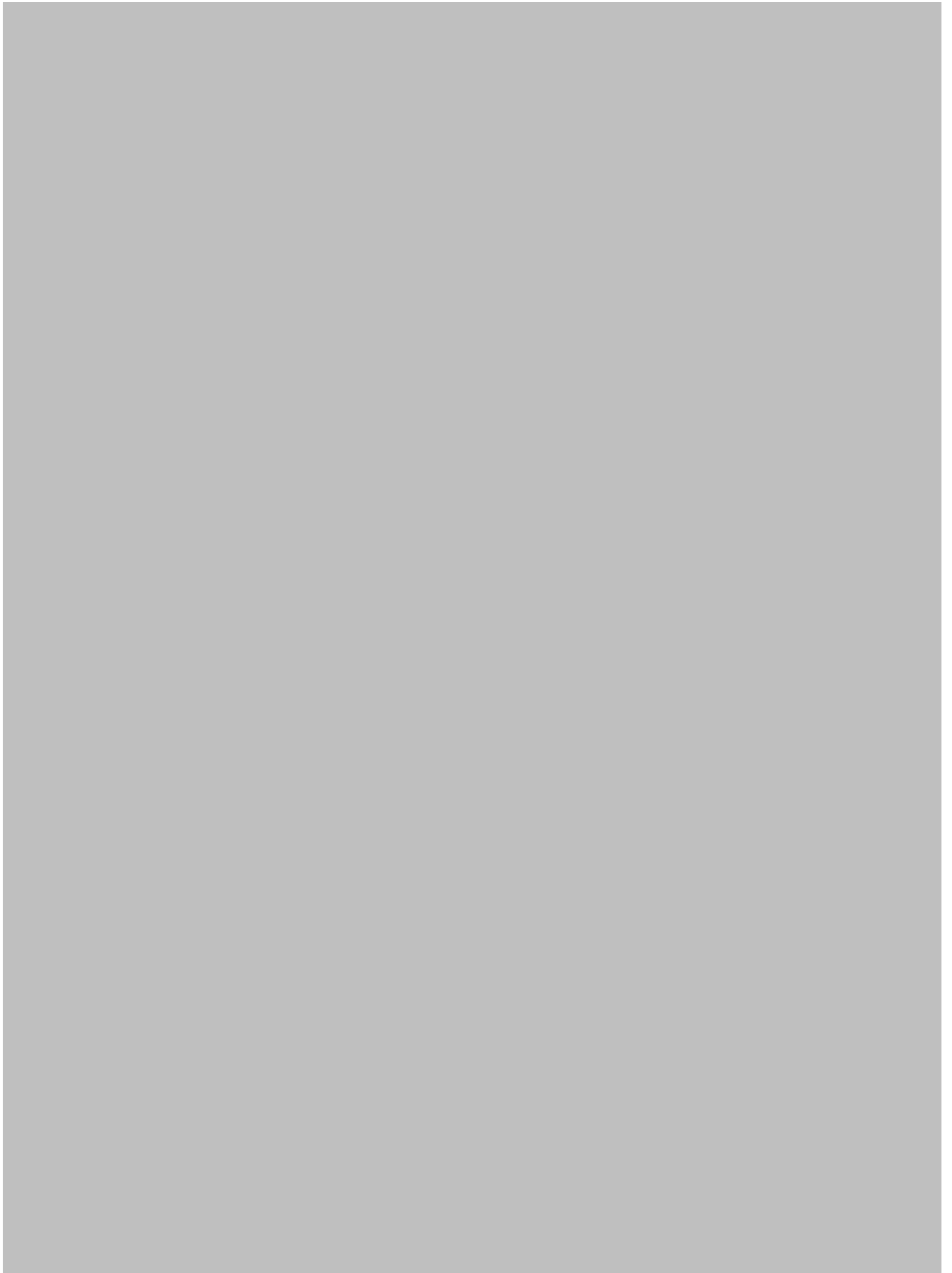
20. يرجى الإشارة إلى مجموعة دخلك الشهري:

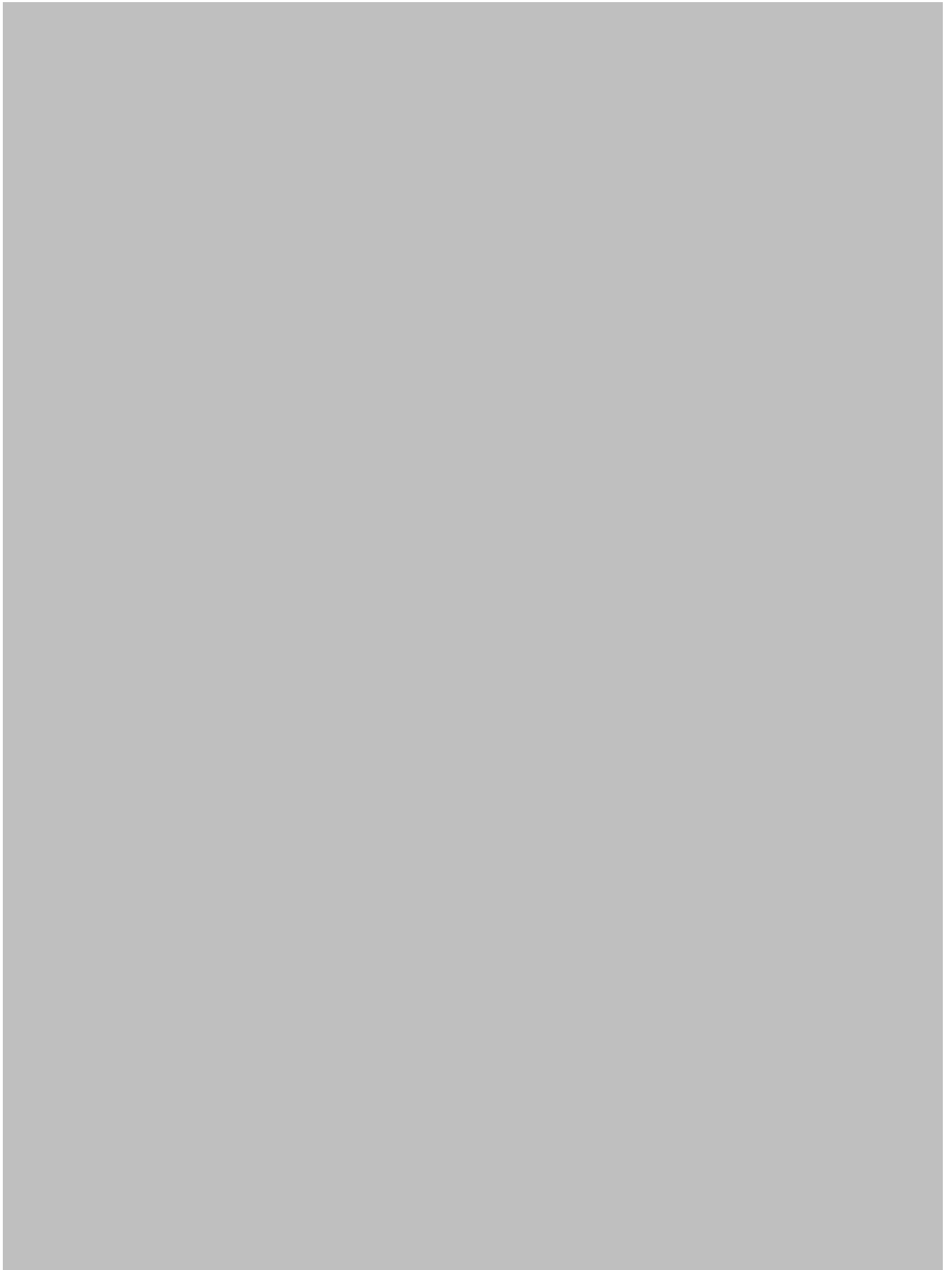
أقل من 8,000 درهم	<input type="checkbox"/>
18000-8001 درهم	<input type="checkbox"/>
18,001-28,000 درهم	<input type="checkbox"/>
28,001-38,000 درهم	<input type="checkbox"/>
38,001-48,000 درهم	<input type="checkbox"/>

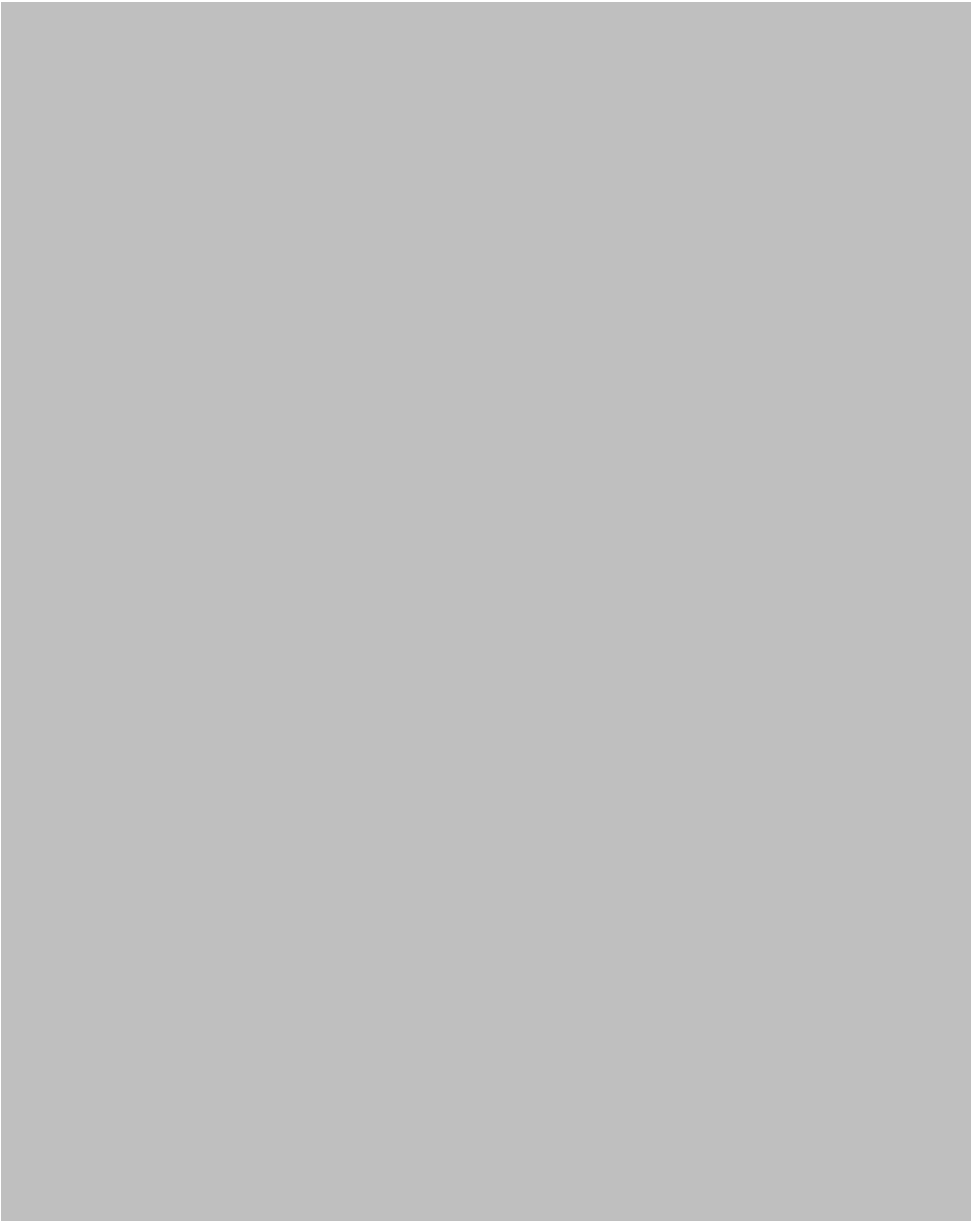
Appendix 3: Interviews Script Samples

1. Interviewing Aysha (Arab)

Name	Aysha
Age	Over 25
Marital status	Unmarried with no children
job	Director of sales and marketing
Salary	More than 25,000 SR

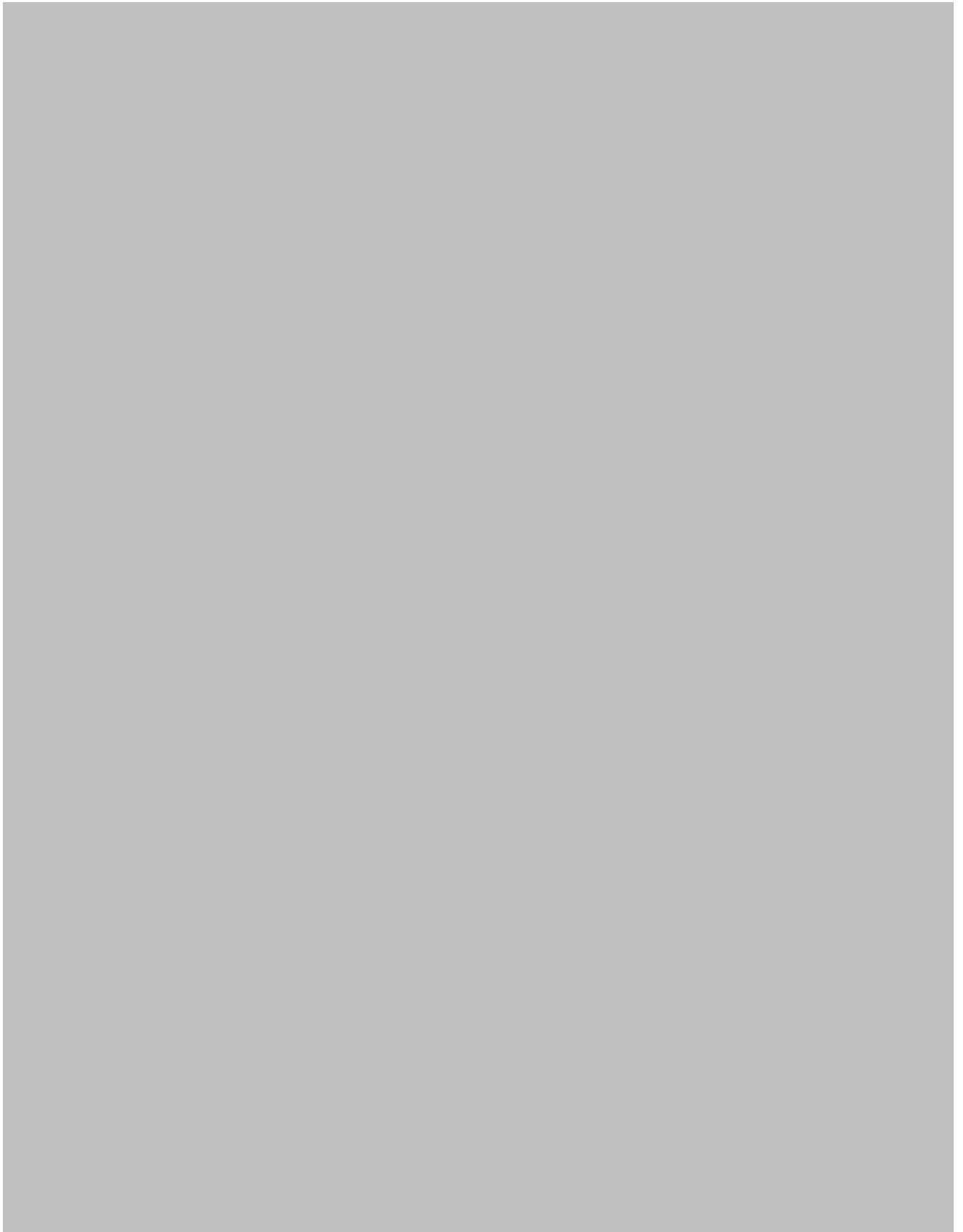






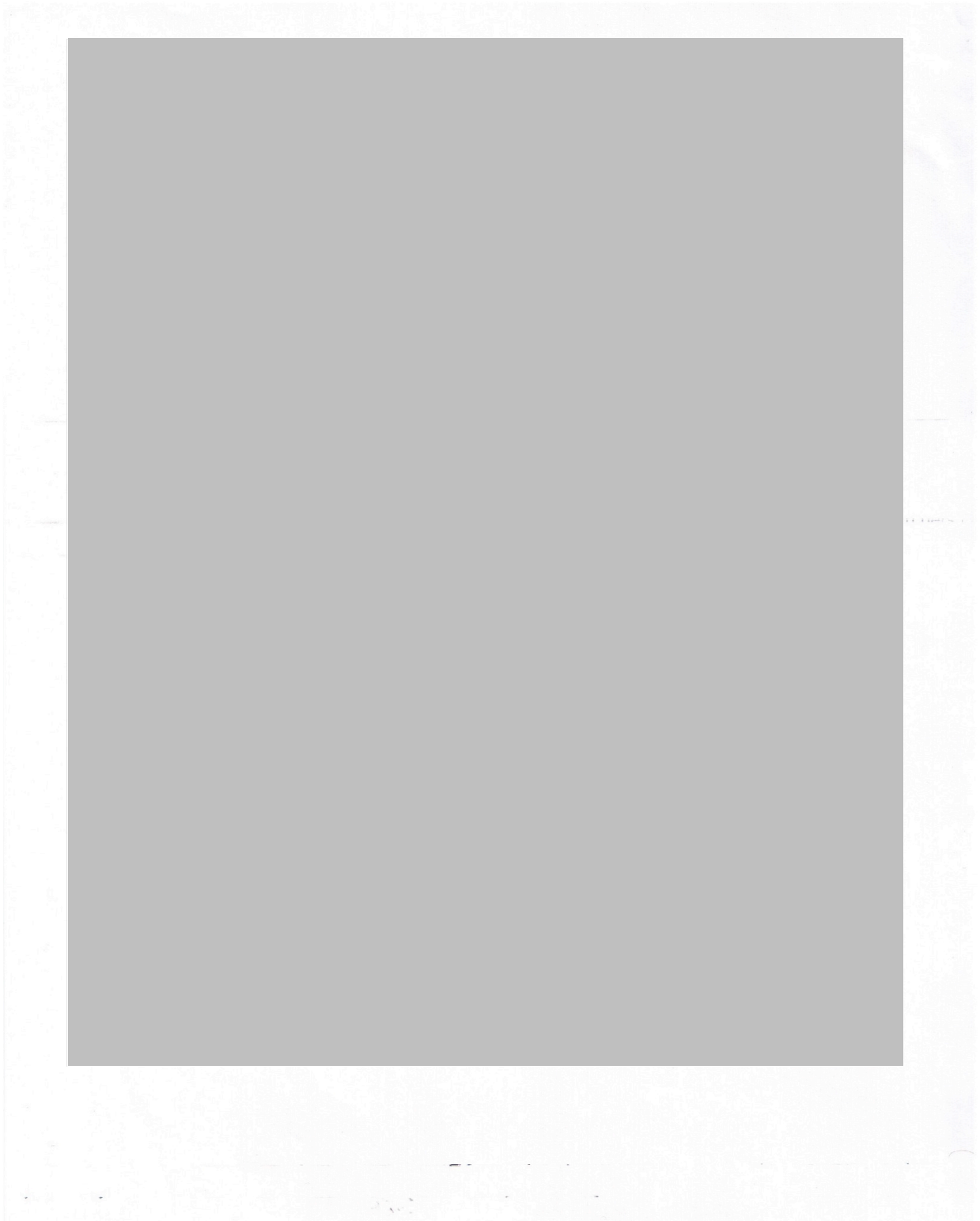
2. Interviewing Alma and Glories (Expatriate)

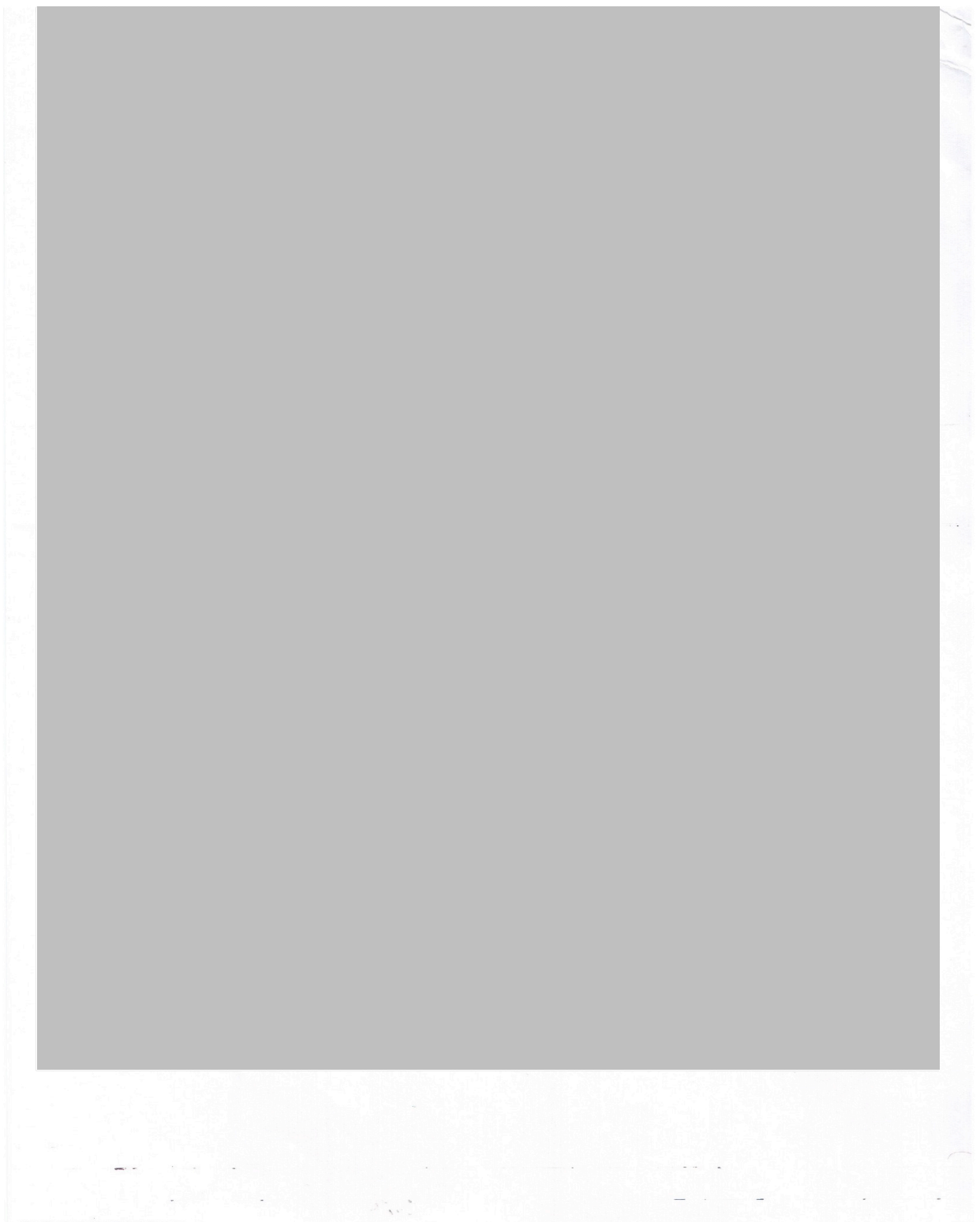
Name	Alma	Glories
Age	34	25
Marital status	Married with one child	Unmarried with no children
Job	Waitress	
Salary	Less than 8,000 AD	Less than 8,000 AD





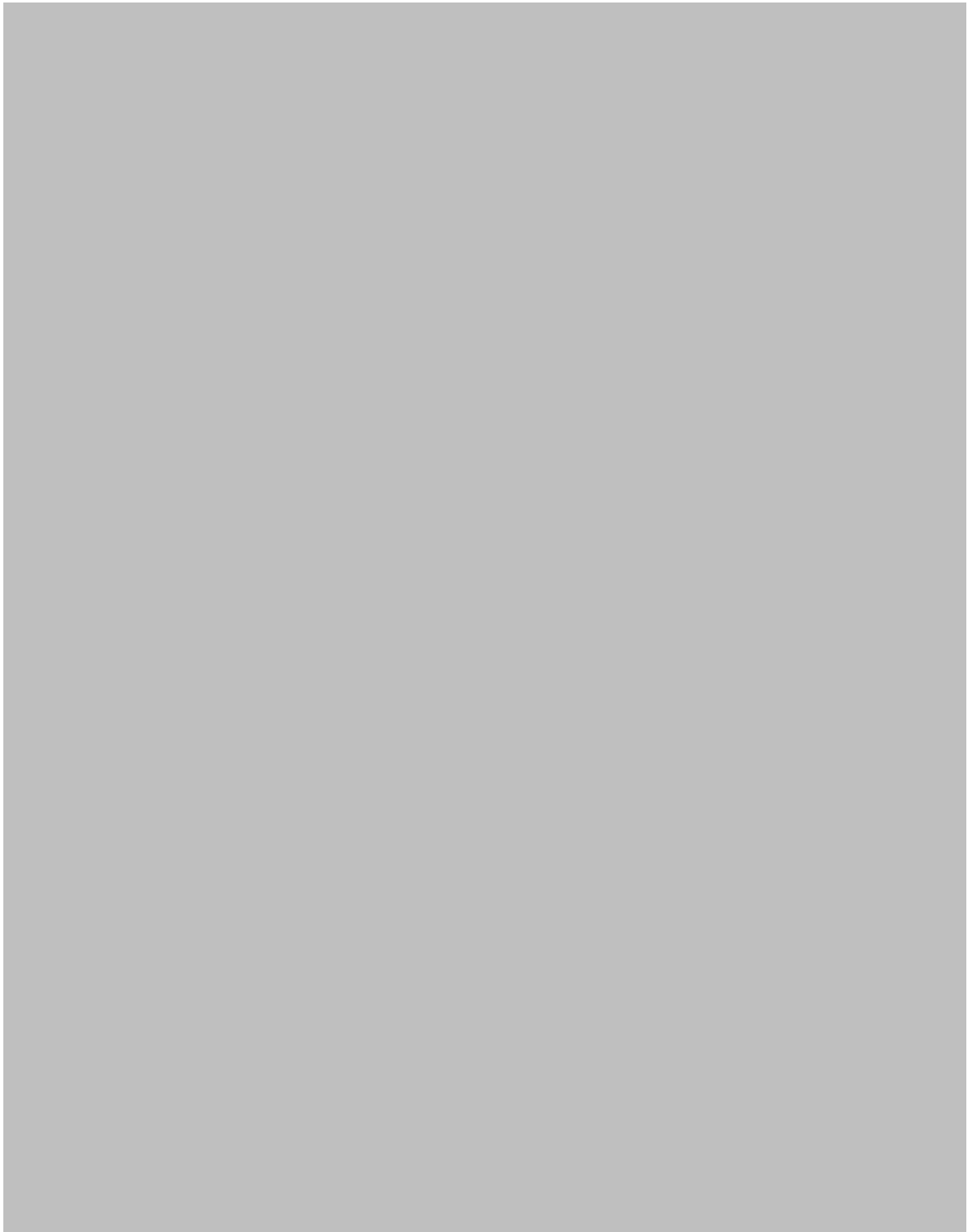
Appendix 4: Consent Forms

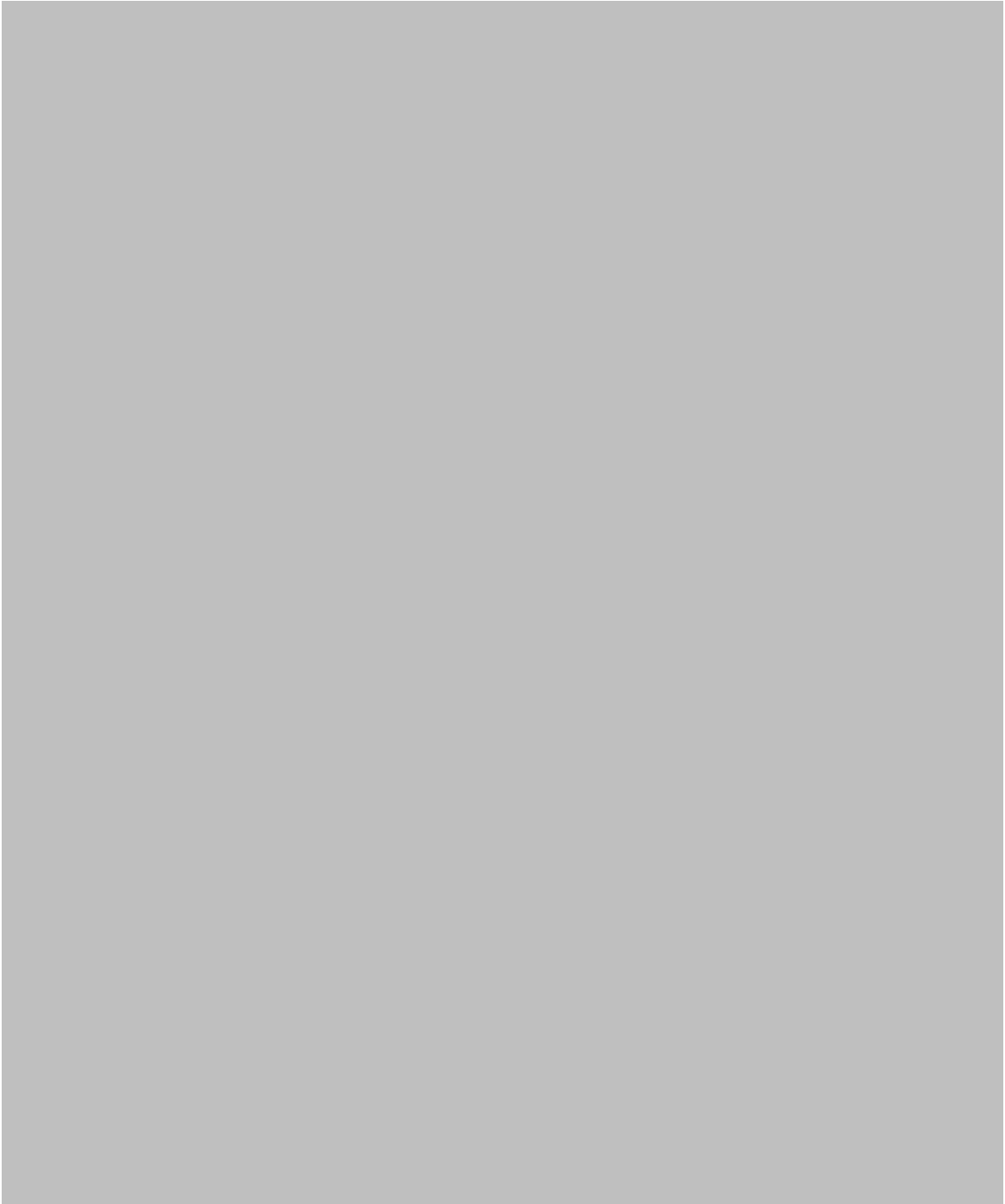




Appendix 5: Certificates







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